The Nation

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The Week

The Sundry Civil Appropriation bill was introduced in the House on Monday. It is in the same form that President Taft vetoed. That is to say, in appropriating $300,000 for the special use of the Department of Justice in prosecuting violations of the Anti-Trust law, the proviso is inserted that "no part of this sum shall be spent in the prosecution of any organization or individual for entering into any combination or agreement having in view the increasing of wages, shortening of hours, or bettering the condition of labor." A similar exemption is accorded organizations of farmers. Now, the Anti-Trust law itself is universal in its language. It says "every person." It denounces as criminal "every combination" to restrain trade or commerce. And it lays the binding duty upon the Attorney-General and all Federal District Attorneys to prosecute *all* violations of the Anti-Trust law. But all this is to be changed. Where the law reads "every person," the addition is to be made "unless he be a workingman or farmer." The statute now arrays the whole power of the United States against certain practices, and commands the officers of the law to prevent them; but hereafter misdemeanants are to go scot-free if they happen to work in a shop or on a farm.

This attempt President Taft met and broke with his veto. No official statement of President Wilson's intentions has been made, but the Washington dispatches assert with great positiveness that he will not refuse to sign the bill if passed again in the same form as before. If the President does agree to exempt laboring men from the equal operation of the laws, he will, in our opinion, make an enormous mistake. This we say not only on the general principle that no excepted class ought to be tolerated, but because of the peculiar claims just now put forth in the name of organized labor. It is not merely to the Anti-Trust law that it professes to be superior. The laws against violence, even those against murder, labor-union agents, in various parts of the country, have been defying, and acting as if they were never intended to compel the obedience of workingmen. The time is eminently one that calls for the firmest denial of all these pretensions. And there is no better way of beginning than by permitting no exception to the law which forbids every kind of oppressive combination and conspiracy, labor or otherwise.

Only one threatened foreign complication has as yet had to be faced by President Wilson, and in his attitude towards this he has shown the cardinal diplomatic quality—patience. It would have been easy to blow into a flame the smouldering trouble over the proposed California law denying the right of Japanese to lease land in that State. A provocative line, with resulting excitement, could have been taken in either one of two ways. There could have been a loud remonstrance addressed to California. She might have been told that she was violating a treaty of the United States, and warned that she must at once cease imperilling our international relations. Or, on the other hand, there might have been a lot of tall talk about Americans making their own laws to suit themselves, with intimations that if Japan wanted to come on she would find us ready to give her rather better than she sent. But the actual course of the Administration in the matter has been both wise and quieting.

The President has not sought trouble with either California or Japan. He has assumed that a sovereign State ought not to be interfered with in advance of actually passing an act in derogation of a national treaty, and has pointed out that, in case the legislation proves to be of this sort, there is no call for coercion by the general Government, but only for annulment through the Federal courts. And President Wilson has also turned to Japan to ask what is the status of *her* alien laws. If, as he is reported to have discovered, Americans are not permitted to own land in Japan, though entitled to do so under the treaty, the force of the Japanese protest against the action contemplated by the California Legislature is broken.

At the dinner of the National Democratic Club in New York city on Saturday night, the Vice-President of the United States seized what he doubtless regarded as a favorable opportunity for giving the wealthy men of the commercial capital of the country a needed lesson and warning. What the lesson was, we confess we find it hard to make out. If Mr. Marshall imagined he was saying something that would be new to his auditors when he declared that there is a great deal of discontent in the country—that socialistic notions are making headway, that the vast magnitude of many private fortunes is one of the causes of popular unrest—he is either not himself a reader of the newspapers, or is under the impression that the men he was addressing are so busy with their private affairs that they haven't time to look at so much as the headlines of the daily press. We can hardly suppose either of these things; and, as he gave not the slightest indication of what he thought the rich men had better do about the matter—except that they had better not be getting so rich—we are driven to the conclusion that the talk contained nothing of any consequence in the way of instruction or guidance.

Whether it is true or not that "we need a national Department of Public Works, whose executive head should be a member of the President's Cabinet," as Mr. Isham Randolph declared in an address before the National Drainage Congress at St. Louis last week, it is certainly true that the problem of river floods is a national problem, and that it is incumbent on the nation to take measures which shall stop the recurrence of such disasters and dangers as we have been witnessing this year. A commission to study the subject ought to be created at the earliest possible moment. A bill for that purpose would doubtless be passed promptly by Congress, and receive the President's approval. In a dispatch to the St. Louis meeting, he spoke of the "imperative and immediate necessity for a comprehensive and sys-

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tematic plan for drainage and flood control." It is stated that among those at the meeting the proposal of a Department of Public Works threw into the background the idea of the appointment of a commission. But the creation of a new department of the Federal Government ought to be a matter for careful deliberation, whereas the inquiry into the ways and means of flood prevention should be set on foot without hesitation or delay.

As a practical question of legislation, it is not necessary to take seriously the bill introduced in the United States Senate by Mr. Chilton, of West Virginia, prescribing a minimum wage of $9 a week for all women and girls employed in work which goes into interstate commerce. But it may serve as a peg on which to hang a moral of wide application. The idea of the bill is in keeping with that of the Beveridge child-labor bill, which attained considerable prominence some years ago, and it is one that is almost sure to come up from time to time. Quite apart from the merits of the minimum-wage proposal in itself—or, in the other case, of the child-labor proposal in itself—the vital objection lies against such a bill that it implies an almost unlimited right of coercion of the States by the Federal Government. If the interstate commerce power may properly be used for the purpose of forbidding child labor in the various States, or for the purpose of compelling the payment in all of them of wages of a certain magnitude, it may with equal reason be used for the purpose of compelling total abstinence, or Sunday closing, or anything else that Congress may regard as socially desirable. It is possible that such uses of the interstate commerce are within the competence of Congress, so far as the letter of the Constitution is concerned; but they evidently run counter to its spirit, and to the fundamental character of our whole political system.

The Navy League plainly got cold comfort out of the remarks of the Secretary of State and Congressman Fitzgerald at its annual banquet. Mr. Bryan remarked significantly that, while the League was working for battleships, he should be working to make battleships unnecessary. Truly, no finer opportunity ever confronted a statesman than is now Mr. Bryan's. With a possible agreement between Great Britain and Germany in the matter of armaments, it is just the hour for Mr. Bryan to assure both nations of our sympathy with Mr. Churchill's practical proposal that all the great navies should suspend construction for a year. As for Congressman Fitzgerald, he was unassailable in his contention that the fault of the big-navy, and for that matter big-army, men is their uncertainty when it comes to facts. Never do estimates hold good. Mr. Fitzgerald told of a case of a General Staff request for an $800,000 appropriation which soon grew into $8,000,000. He could have given instance after instance to prove that the army and navy jingo is never satisfied. In 1886, for instance, the Endicott Fortifications Board assured us that for a couple of hundred millions we could protect the coast without a fleet. Now we learn that, after investing far greater sums, we also need at least forty-five Dreadnoughts and an army of 250,000 men to protect our harbors alone.

To refer to a measure just passed by the Ohio Legislature as providing for mothers' or widows' pensions is to sacrifice accuracy to conciseness. Motherhood has not been "endowed." As in New Jersey and one or two other places, the State is merely giving some assistance to needy children and older persons while allowing them to remain at home, instead of following the more usual procedure of putting them into an institution. The "pensions" are not to be spent at the free will of those who receive them, as an old soldier may spend his, but under strict regulation by the courts. They are payments for certain purposes rather than pensions. For such an arrangement there is much to be said. Where a mother has the strength and the capacity to take care of her children, but cannot do so if she must employ her time away from home in earning their bread, it is surely wiser to give her the money that will enable her to make useful citizens out of her children, than to turn them over to professional caretakers, however worthy the latter may be. Nor will there be objection to such payments to indigent widows without children as will keep soul and body together, if the whole matter is carefully supervised. Preservation of the home is worth all it may cost in this way. But let us not carelessly talk as if a new and large section of society were about to be pensioned for life.

There was only one speech against the bill, and Mr. Matt, of Bedford, replied that the bill was so simple it needed no explanation.

The bill referred to went through the Pennsylvania House of Representatives by a vote of 166 to 7. What an excellent measure that must be, which arouses only one speech against it, and needs no explanation! Some of our readers may be a bit surprised to learn that the bill appropriated $1,500,000 for pensions for soldiers, sailors, and marines who served in the Civil War from Pennsylvania. Are not these men, they may ask, sufficiently provided for by Congress? Did not that patriotic body add no one knows just how many millions to the pension budget last year? We can only reply that it is impossible to overpay those who fought for their country. New York defeated such a bill not long ago, but shall Pennsylvania, with the field of Gettysburg within her borders, forget her noble sons? Not while they and theirs have votes to give, and there are legislators who want them.

Not a passenger was killed on any of the twenty-seven railways in Colorado last year. The 318 persons in the country who met their deaths while travelling by rail were distributed among the other forty-seven States. In Colorado, as elsewhere, most of those who were killed by trains were either trespassers or other persons who were neither passengers nor employees. The Pullman Company fared still better, being responsible for no deaths whatever, either of passengers or employees. In the entire country, one employee out of 330 especially exposed to accidents was killed, and one out of between eight and nine injured. In Colorado, these figures were 510 and between 25 and 26, respectively. No reason is suggested for Colorado's much greater exemption than her sister States in these respects. Throughout the country, the railways are making an effort to get laws enacted which shall tend to minimize the greatest single cause of loss of life, that resulting from trespassing. It is not tramps alone, or even chiefly, who suf-

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fer in this way, but persons who find the railway track the most convenient path to their work.

We know something about how much fires cost us every year, but has any one ever calculated the loss to the nation from colds? It has been done for Great Britain, and the figures are arresting. During the eight weeks of March and April, reasons the statistician, probably every other person in the nation suffers from a cough or a cold, or both. All that remains is to find out what 23,000,000 colds cost. The expense of a cold varies, of course, with different individuals. The ten-dollar-a-week clerk who loses one day from his work, and has his efficiency lowered 10 per cent. for three days more, has cost somebody very nearly $2.50. A Cabinet Minister who is confined to his room for two days, and does a reduced amount of work for two days more, may have cost the country as much as $200. It must be remembered, too, that eighty colds in every hundred are colds in the head, and not very serious; the remaining twenty attack the throat or the chest, and often the head also. Two colds in every thousand lead to bronchitis, pneumonia, pleurisy, or something of the sort; and one in a thousand results in death or a considerable shortening of life. Taking all these factors into account, and not forgetting doctors' bills, we have the following statement:

Direct cost of 23,000,000 colds..	$28,750,000
Loss by absence from work....	15,625,000
Loss by lowered efficiency	12,000,000
Total loss	$56,375,000

Multiply this by four, since it represents the loss in March alone, and March is responsible for one-fourth of the colds; then double the result, since our population is twice that of the United Kingdom, and you have a total that deserves a place in the imposing tables of how much we spend on liquor, tobacco, jewelry, pensions, educations, and foreign missions.

The "hunger strike" works as well in this country as in England. Indeed, with the infusion of noise and prayer, it succeeds much more quickly here. Nor are its benefits limited to women. Two women and one man were arrested in Zion City, the sacred community founded by Dowie, for leading a march upon an ungodly electric plant, where men used tobacco. The three spent the day in jail without food or water, but with an abundance of disturbance. In their own words, they were holding a prayer-meeting. Their screams could be heard a block away. The gist of their petitions was that an earthquake might be sent to shake down the jail walls. The earthquake did not come, but their prayers were answered nevertheless. The chief of police, being a tender-hearted officer, was uneasy over the prospect of his charges going to bed hungry, and still more anxious over the effect that a continuance of the racket would have upon the slumbers of the other prisoners, who certainly had a right to a night's rest. He ultimately yielded, therefore, and opened the doors of the jail. The Zionists followed up this victory by obtaining an order restraining the officers from interfering with their public meetings. For the first time in three years, accordingly, they are praying on the street-corners in peace.

Rumors of an Anglo-German agreement with regard to naval armaments will not down. The latest hint comes from Berlin, where it is reported that, as soon as the Balkan War is over, the British Government intends to approach Germany with a proposal to suspend shipbuilding operations during the fiscal year 1914-15. This may be an indirect invitation from German quarters addressed to Winston Churchill. Or it may be a bit of playful irony on the part of the German press. But let the advocate of the strenuous naval life recall that such a suggestion to slacken up Dreadnought production for a year is not silly Utopianism. One may be convinced that war is the first law of nature and the first occupation of a gentleman, and yet admit the desirability of an occasional breathing spell. They were no mollycoddles in the early Middle Ages, but even the mediæval baron consented to lay aside his spear and sword for a few days and seek recuperation under a Truce of God.

The general strike which began in Belgium on Monday under Socialist leadership and with the sympathy of the Liberal party is not the kind of general strike of which we have heard so much of late in connection with the Syndicalist or I. W. W. movement. Syndicalism is a revolt against industrial agitation through politics. The Syndicalist argues that the conflict between labor and capital must be fought out on the industrial field, by means of boycotts, strikes, sabotage, and other methods of guerrilla warfare, until the time is ripe for the general strike—*le grand jour*—when the laborers of a nation will fold their arms and the control of industry will pass from the capitalists to the workers. In such a scheme there is no place for the Parliamentary palaverer. But this Belgian general strike has precisely a political aim. Its purpose is to force the Catholic majority, which has so long been in control of the Belgian Government, to concede manhood suffrage and do away with the absurd system of plural voting which enables a minority of the electorate to intrench itself in Parliament.

Of the two most notable experiments with the general strike in recent years, the one that had a political object in view succeeded; the one that was fought on economic grounds failed. The first strike was, of course, the general upheaval of the Russian people in October, 1905, when communal life was brought almost to a standstill by a strike of factory operatives, railway and telegraph workers, physicians, lawyers, judges, university and high-school students. After three days the Government yielded, and the Czar promulgated the Constitution of October 30, which in greatly modified form is still the basis of such political liberties as Russia may be said to enjoy. The second strike was that which broke out in Sweden in the summer of 1909. It developed out of disputes in the paper and iron industries. A lockout of 80,000 workers was followed by the proclamation of a general sympathetic strike which brought out no less than 285,000 men, out of an estimated industrial population of 460,000; a notable showing involving a higher percentage than the Belgian unions will probably be able to rally. But the railway workers refused to come out, and there was little response from the agricultural laborers. Civic life in Stockholm was paralyzed for several days, but the Security Brigade of volunteers succeeded in carrying through the essential public services and maintaining order. After five weeks the strike collapsed.

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CONGRESS AND THE CABINET.

President Wilson's innovations regarding his relations with Congress and the new seating plan of the House of Representatives will probably give impetus to the movement to seat the Cabinet in House or Senate. If it is so easy for a tactful President to establish human and personal relations with Congress, why, it will be asked, should not the members of his Cabinet follow suit? Already they are entitled to seats on the floor of the Senate and House at times of ceremony. Why, then, should they not drop in regularly, and perhaps gradually begin to answer questions, even if the right to debate is for the present withheld? It all sounds so very simple, and suggests not only a saving of time but more of government in the open. Moreover, as Mr. Taft expressed himself in favor of the change just before leaving office, and it has been generally assumed that Mr. Wilson has favored this change ever since the appearance of his "Congressional Government," we are sure to hear a good deal more about it in the near future.

The rearrangement of the House of Representatives somehow naturally suggests a "front bench" for Ministers and one for the Opposition leaders. For decades this reform has been urged, and now at last the desks are out, and with them go many excuses for inattention to the speakers, such as letter-writing, newspaper-reading, etc. The seats will not be so comfortable, and since it will not be as easy to immerse one's self in correspondence or other distracting matters, it is quite likely that the actual numerical attendance of Congressmen may for a time fall off. But a legislator who is a "dinner-bell" empties the benches in London, Berlin, and Paris as well. On the other hand, when important matters are up, it is quite possible that the standards of debating and speaking will improve. Time alone will show just what the effect of this innovation will be. If a new atmosphere is created and genuine debating becomes not the exception but the daily order, the desirability of having Cabinet officers at hand is likely to become more apparent.

The best argument for it is the one of government in the open. It is not to be denied that the Cabinet members are frequently in touch with Congress through the committees, before which the President may also appear, if he so desires. But committee-room hearings are very different from what would happen if the Cabinet were to appear upon the floor. It is plain that there can never be obtained the same publicity for what goes on in committee-rooms that is even now accorded to events on the floor of Senate or House. Frequently, vitally important statements of policy made by the Secretaries to standing committees fail to attract the attention they deserve —usually, unless there is under consideration a matter of capital national importance. But it is the English custom of questioning Ministers which particularly appeals; ridiculous as some of the questions asked in the Commons are, as a whole they serve the useful purpose of smoking out the Government. Anybody who recalls how difficult it was to obtain facts about what was going on in the Philippines during the war there, must see the point. And to pass a resolution of inquiry often avails little. The Secretary inquired of may send back a batch of documents requiring endless labor to analyze, and sometimes confusing the issue; or he may decline all information on the ground that it is against public policy, when he would find it hard to show what the public policy was if he were compelled to explain on his feet under a cross-fire of criticism.

Mr. Wilson as Governor desired a close relationship between Executive and Legislature because he felt that the Governor was leader of his party and should have the right personally to advocate the passage of the legislation for the obtaining of which he asked the suffrages of the voters. The weak point in such a change is obviously the fact that the Governor of a State is by no means always the leader of a party which has a majority in the Legislature. Take Massachusetts, for example; it has the habit of simultaneously electing Democratic Governors and Republican Legislatures. This happens frequently elsewhere. The Governor, if he had the right to enter a legislative debate, would find himself, under these circumstances, merely the leader of the Opposition seeking to obtain for himself a majority by aid of outside opinion. Plainly, it is impossible to conceive of the English system of a responsible Ministry being exactly duplicated in this country, for the Governor is chosen for a fixed term, and cannot stand or fall with his legislative programme. It is an adaptation of the English plan to our own which we can at most hope for, if, little by little, this appears desirable.

But a closer relationship between the Executive and the Legislature, as between the Executive and the public, does seem desirable and probable. Mr. Hughes illustrated the power of the just Governor who in righteous causes appeals to the public. Mr. Wilson in New Jersey had intended to go regularly to the various county seats and meet the voters face to face. The support given him by the voters of the State rendered this unnecessary, and besides his Presidential candidacy intervened. He must ache to be back for a few weeks, and try once more the value of that direct personal appeal, now that his jury bill is defeated, just as he must have wished that he or Gov. Fielder could have entered the New Jersey Senate before the close of the session to advocate their bill on the floor and expose the influences which brought about its defeat. In the last analysis, the success of any *rapprochement* between Executive and Legislature will depend on the character, ability, and manners of the Executive. Where Mr. Wilson has succeeded another might make such moves appear ridiculous, or as the despotic attempt of an Executive to aggrandize himself at the expense of a coördinate branch of the government.

THE SEVENTEENTH AMENDMENT.

Close upon the heels of the income-tax amendment, the amendment providing for direct election of United States Senators has obtained its requisite quota of three-fourths of the States of the Union. It is less than ten months since the amendment was passed by Congress, and this rapidity in the process of confirmation disposes of the long-standing notion that the difficulties in altering the Federal Constitution are almost insuperable. The truth, as brought out in the history of the two amendments just ratified, is that changes in the Constitution can be made with reasonable promptness—indeed, it would hardly be too much to say with expedition—whenever there arrives that degree of general and fixed recognition

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of its desirability upon which a change of the organic law ought to be based. Before this latest amendment could be adopted, it had to obtain the approval of two-thirds of the United States Senators, who were always supposed to cling with extraordinary tenacity to the existing method; and it had to obtain the assent of the Legislatures of three-fourths of the States to the abandonment of a function which was naturally valued as giving importance and prestige to membership in those bodies. Yet, as soon as the question had been thoroughly settled in the minds of the people at large, the personal preference either of Senators or of Legislaturemen ceased to play any part whatever.

Some men of high intellectual qualifications, but not of a type to win popular support, may be kept out by the new method, as well as men who have owed their seats to no qualifications at all except those connected with the pulling of wires and the management of political machines. But the benefit of the change that has been accomplished is not to be measured simply by an assessment of the personal qualifications of the Senators. To have got rid of a prolific source of intrigue and corruption is, in itself, an incalculable gain. And along with this will go benefits of the first order, both as regards the national Government and the State Governments. The six-year term of Senators has acted, and ought to act, as a balance-wheel in our governmental system; but the choice in the first instance should represent a real act of selection, upon public grounds, and not that hole-and-corner manœuvring which, in so many instances, it has become. Under the new régime, the Senate will command a kind and degree of respect which, a few years ago, it was evidently in imminent danger of losing. And elections to State Legislatures will be freed from a disturbing element that has gone far towards paralyzing all efforts to improve the quality of those bodies. With the election of United States Senators eliminated from the problem, it is not too much to hope that we shall, before long, acquire the habit of choosing members of our Legislatures on the basis of State issues and the personal merits of candidates, instead of following party labels and playing into the hands of machine politicians.

That the personal quality of the Senate will, however, in the long run, be improved is not too much to hope. No inference on this head can be made from the results that have been attained in a few sporadic cases of the application of a method similar to, or approximating toward, that of the outright direct election of Senators. To be one of the two men representing a State in the small and powerful upper branch of the Congress of the United States is intrinsically a great distinction and a great privilege. Whether party nominations be made by direct primaries—as they doubtless soon will be, in nearly all cases—or by conventions, the final decision will be made by the people at large, and parties will have this fact in mind from the outset. To suppose that, when this has become the established situation, the survival of the unfit will be anything but an occasional exception is to have very little confidence in democratic institutions.

The doctrine of the virtual unamendability of the Constitution has had, in these latter years, two salient consequences. For several years it was quite the fashion to decry respect for Constitutional restrictions as a slavish subserviency to the rule of the dead hand; the rights of the present generation, it was declared, could not be overridden by a lot of antiquated provisions which were set up by men of a past age, and which, not foreseeing this age of steam and electricity, they had made it virtually impossible to alter. The logical, and indeed the inevitable, outcome of this attitude, if it had prevailed, would have been the virtual nullification of the Constitution; and its failure to gain headway may be regarded as a proof that the country was by no means disposed to accept this as desirable. A later development was the agitation for the reversal of judicial decisions on Constitutional questions by popular vote. This proposal has always been bound up with a most curious confusion of thought. It was ostensibly directed at State Constitutions only; but everybody knows that the amendment of State Constitutions is a process of very great facility. The actual force behind it, whether perceived or not by the agitators in its favor, was the difficulty of amending the Federal Constitution; and the prompt incorporation into that instrument of two popular amendments can hardly fail to have a disastrous effect upon the propaganda. That we should have no written Constitution is a tenable position; that the courts should have no power to declare laws unconstitutional is a tenable position; but the notion that the Constitution of the United States should be easily changed from year to year, and the proposition that the courts' interpretation of it should be subject to annulment by a count of noses on election day, strike us as wholly devoid of sober political sense.

THE INCOME TAX.

It is natural that, in discussions of the pending tariff bill, public attention should thus far have been directed chiefly to changes in the import duties and their effect on trade conditions. This part of the problem is familiar; the questions arising from the income tax are not. For such a Federal tax we have only the two precedents of the Civil War levy, which, as a pure emergency tax, was not discussed on the broadest principles, and the proposals of 1894, which were declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. The recent ratification by the States of a Constitutional amendment, framed to remove the obstacles which were encountered by the act of 1894, has sufficiently demonstrated the country's approval of the income tax in principle, and its incorporation in the Underwood bill had, therefore, been taken for granted. But the very fact that the situation is in many respects new makes it less easy to be certain at the start as to the real significance of the details of the bill.

The position taken by the authors of the pending measure, that citizens should contribute to the expenses of government in accordance with their several incomes, and not merely in proportion to their consumption of dutiable merchandise, appears to meet with general acceptance. There is, however, this criticism on the income tax as a source of public revenue, that the limitations on excessive taxation of that nature are never so clearly in evidence as in the case of customs or excise taxes. Excessive customs duties will shut out importations altogether, and thus reduce, instead of expanding, the public revenue. Excessive excise imposts will raise

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prices directly and visibly to consumers, and will in many instances actually check production.

But a tax on incomes produces none of these visible results. If, at a certain point, it bears with undue hardship on certain classes of the community—if it brings about inequality; if it embarrasses the free movement of capital into industry—the connection between cause and effect will not be easy to determine for the community as a whole. We are not calling attention to any particular provisions of the bill in its present form, but are merely stating general facts which the history of income-tax legislation, especially in recent years, has brought to light in other countries than our own.

One thing which that experience has taught is the bearing of the income tax on public extravagance. For the reasons above set forth, it is possible for Governments to increase repeatedly the rate of such a tax, without being stopped by its sudden non-productiveness. Purely from the point of view of revenue, this is an advantage; but its danger, especially in an era of governmental extravagance, is that the framers of appropriation bills, the projectors of increased national armaments, the log-rollers, and the pension grabbers, may imagine themselves to have discovered the philosopher's stone. Until 1905, England's income tax rate never exceeded one shilling in the pound sterling, except in time of war or in the period of debt-redemption immediately after war. It has not been below that rate since 1905, and has in fact been increased during the more recent years, and the increase has gone hand in hand with England's extravagant and politically unfortunate "Dreadnought policy."

This consideration draws attention to the House committee's fiscal calculations. The sugar duties, which have been producing upwards of $50,000,000 annually, are to be at once reduced, and presently abolished, and this, with other reductions in the revenue through changes in the tariff, is to be more than compensated for by the $100,000,000 revenue roughly calculated from the income tax. The estimate may turn out to be correct; yet it points to dangerous possibilities if the appropriation committees are forthwith to untie the purse-strings.

The revenue plans of the McKinley bill of 1890 went to wreck through exactly this procedure of throwing over the surely productive sugar tax for other experimental taxes, in the face of increased appropriations. Of the Wilson law of 1894, the correctness of the original plan is debatable, inasmuch as the income-tax provisions were never put into effect, and inasmuch, also, as the Senate restored a portion of the sugar duties, which the House had voted to abolish altogether. The actual Treasury deficit, in the first full fiscal year after the Wilson bill, was $25,200,000; it would have been $56,000,000 had the sugar tax been abolished. But the estimate drawn up for the Senate by the Bureau of Statistics named $39,000,000 as the maximum annual yield of that year's income-tax provision—which contemplated a higher basic rate than does the pending bill.

We call these sufficiently well-known facts to mind in order to show that there are certain very possible snags ahead in this new legislation levying an income tax. Of the administrative provisions for the tax, there will be much more to say hereafter. The idea of "collecting at the source," through requiring employers and investment corporations to deduct from the salaries, wages, and interest coupons, payable by them, the amount due by the beneficiary for his income tax, is an ingenious plan for preventing evasion of the tax; but the administrative clause is crowded with technicalities, and will unquestionably cause great confusion. It can hardly be said to have been drawn in a way to clear up the actual requirements, either of employer or employee, corporation or investor. We imagine that this part of the pending measure will be the focus of much perplexed discussion, in and out of Congress, before its actual scope and meaning are made altogether clear.

POLICING A STATE.

The Buffalo street car strike called into service 3,000 militiamen, some of whom, after being fired upon, wounded a woman and a schoolboy. Auburn, too, in this State, has just had its strike and rioting, and there are still two companies on duty there. Every couple of months or so these scenes are repeated, witness Glens Falls, and as regularly there is complaint on the one side of a failure of the constituted local authorities to preserve order, and on the other of flagrant abuse of official power in the way of the denial of the Constitutional rights of free speech and assembly. It should seem as if the time were more than ever ripe for the establishment in New York of a State Constabulary on the lines of the Pennsylvania organization which has been so successful.

Primarily, such a body of trained men takes a place between the local authorities and the military. Pennsylvania used to work her militia harder than any other State. Strikes in the coal or steel districts frequently kept whole brigades under arms three months at a time, at a heavy expense to the State. In the seven years since the establishment of the Pennsylvania Constabulary, militiamen, if we remember correctly, have been ordered out for riot duty but once; on all occasions of disorder the Constabulary are called upon. Though numbering but 228 officers and men, they have successfully handled such dangerous outbreaks as those connected with the strikes at the Pressed Steel Car Company's works, at Chester, and in Philadelphia—not without cost to themselves, for they have lost seven killed and nineteen dangerously wounded, seven of the latter crippled for life—since first they took the field. At the time the militia appeared they were the sport of the crowds, for they had had no experience whatever in handling mobs. The Constabulary find rifles "inconvenient" in such work; they use only the long night-sticks that hang at their saddles, and so great is their reputation for knowing how to deal with riots that half-a-dozen men have frequently driven off thousands.

This force does not, of course, exist merely for emergency duty. In 1912, so writes their able superintendent, Major John C. Groome, in his annual report, his men, "by their quiet fearlessness, energy, and good judgment, have not only apprehended thousands of criminals and enforced law and order throughout the State, but have largely reduced the number of crimes, and in many localities prevented disorder and lawlessness." Their arrests in 1912 numbered 1,144 for eight different crimes—twenty-three for murder—and 80 per

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cent. of those arrested were convicted. Obviously, they are increasing the respect for the law throughout Pennsylvania. Not only do they ride into remote districts where no police authority was visible before, but they provide machinery for bringing to justice offenders who formerly went scot-free because of incompetent or favor-seeking sheriffs, or the lack of coöperation between localities. Thus the Constabulary covered no less than 401,398 miles on patrol in 1912, visiting 2,370 towns or boroughs in sixty-six different counties, and they did this despite interruptions for special duty and the detective service they are constantly called upon to perform. All this was at a cost to the State of a trifle above $300,000.

To illustrate the detective work of his men, Major Groome cites several cases of coöperation with United States authorities, and captures made outside of the State. To pursue a platinum thief, one constable was sent to New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts, eventually capturing the criminal in Maryland. Another offender was run down in Buffalo, and still others in Alabama and Virginia. Altogether, no less than 2,592 requests for assistance were received by the Constabulary from judges, sheriffs, chiefs of police, mayors, district attorneys, and other officials. This fact alone justifies the existence of the Constabulary, if it needed justification. Yet it is severely criticised by labor unions and their sympathizers, and by those who see wrong in the use of any force. The labor unions have thus far succeeded in preventing a much-needed increase of the constables. Not that they can allege that the State police have taken sides; they simply do not wish any efficient authority at hand when they think it time to strike. Last May the coal strike called out part of the Constabulary; less than 150 men kept order in five counties, where, prior to their appearance, the strikers were assaulting miners, pump-men, and engineers to their hearts' content. "After the first day," writes Major Groome, "there was no serious trouble, and the daily patrols from the fifteen sub-stations and the barracks at Pottsville and Wyoming were able to put down lawlessness and maintain order"—150 men upholding the law in five rural counties by day and night! Such is the value of special training for a given duty.

We have frequently dwelt upon the services of this body of police because it demonstrates that Americans can have police of a high order of efficiency and honesty if they choose to go to work the right way, and because we believe it to be one of the best antidotes for American disregard for law and authority.

A STUDY IN DEGENERACY.

By the New Jersey Department of Charities and Correction a remarkable report has just been submitted to Gov. Fielder. It embodies the studies of certain degenerate families, or strains, made during the past two years by Miss Elizabeth S. Kite. Fitted for the work by previous training and experience, and with a sufficient native endowment of tact and skill, she went to a section of Burlington County where degraded men and women lived in something like promiscuity, and little by little worked out the life-history of selected cases. The results are startling. It may be that this proof of inherited degeneracy, with its consequent burdens on the State, is not so overwhelming as it was in the famous case of the "Jukes" family years ago, but it is surely enough to arouse the deep interest of the philanthropic people and the authorities of New Jersey.

The work was done under the direct sanction of the State. An appropriation "for research" was given to the Department of Charities, for the express purpose of undertaking such inquiries as that of Miss Kite. The reason and justification for the State's investigating this matter is plain. In New Jersey, one in every 206 of the population is a ward of the State—either a prisoner for crime, or insane, or feeble-minded, or diseased. Burlington County has the highest proportion of these delinquents or dependents—one to every 155 of the population. This is one reason why the study was made there. It was believed—as the evidence fully confirmed—that mentally defective and vicious and criminal classes were in some places allowed to propagate their kind dangerously. A spot called "The Pines" was notorious. Decent people living near it were aware of the facts and called for help. Even from within the degenerate community itself an occasional appeal would come to the charity officials. "Can't yer do som'thin' with Beck and Ida?" It was to this region that Miss Kite went, and for two years explored conditions there. They are almost unspeakable; and it gives one a shock to find that they are possible in one of our oldest States. But what the report sharply emphasizes is the fact that the State cannot afford to neglect such an open sore. From it infection radiates. Not only so, but the pollution, even if confined, means steady additions to the imbeciles and insane and criminals for whom the State has to care.

The report gives fictitious names to the persons whose lives she investigated. Among these, two or three families—or, at least, fathers and mothers and children—stand out prominently. One of these is called "The Lackey Family." In it 292 individuals were charted up and down for three generations. It is a dark record. Out of the whole number only six are put down as entirely normal. As many as 174 were illegitimate. There were three outright imbeciles; while those whose history led to the almshouse and prison numbered scores. Another family is designated the "Dixon-Osborn"—names not the real ones. Here 199 individuals were recorded, and the facts are summarized as follows:

RECAPITULATION.

Individuals recorded.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Normal	10	3	13
Normality in?	2	2	4
Unknown	2	5	7
Normal and criminal	1	..	1
Degenerate	60	64	124
Degenerate and almshouse	3	3	6
Degenerate and criminal	15	5	20
Degenerate, almshouse, and criminal	1	1	2
Degenerate, illegitimate	6	9	15
Degenerate, illegitimate, and almshouse	..	2	2
Degenerate, illegitimate, and criminal	2	..	2
Illegitimate normally in?	1	..	1
Illegitimate died in infancy	1	..	1
Died in infancy	..	1	1
	104	95	199

It was the business of the agent of the Department of Charities and Correction only to ascertain and report the facts. The Commissioner, Mr. Joseph P. Byers, undertakes to set forth a part of their significance. First of all, the State must be informed. This is the object of publishing such a report, in itself so depressing. Until we know the sources of contamination, we cannot

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intelligently go about the work of drying them up. Commissioner Byers remarks that the energy of the State has been mostly expended in quarantining, as it were, against these diseased classes of the population, instead of curing them. He would have such cases of plain degeneracy isolated, just as if they were infectious diseases. It may be that special laws will be necessary to bring such breeding of imbecility and criminality under restraint, but an enormous amount can be done by better enforcing the laws which we already have.

THE TEACHER'S QUANDARY.

"There was applause from the audience," so runs the report of the talk given the other day by the teacher of Helen Keller, "when Mrs. Macy said that after trying her own method in teaching she had finally followed the initiative of the child, never made her follow anything until she was weary of it, and that she believed that to be the proper way of educating children. 'I did not see then, and I do not see now, why a child should study something in which it is not interested. It is a waste of energy.'"

This view has been attracting a great deal of attention in recent years. One thing that has stimulated this interest is the remarkable stories that have come out from time to time about the achievements of a few individual children—particularly the son of Professor Wiener of Harvard and the son of Dr. Boris Sidis—who, educated by their parents upon a plan wholly different from that current in the schools, have shown extraordinary attainments at an early age. Professor Wiener has recently described in print the way in which he conducted the education of his children, collaterally with their attendance in the public schools. Like Mrs. Macy, he would have everything turn on the child's voluntary interest in his studies; his attitude on this point being perhaps clearly enough indicated by one incident in the school life of his son Norbert:

> He learned to read at a very early age. In many other respects, however, he was not as quick as plenty of children of the same age. I sent him to the public schools of this small town. Presently I was informed that he did not know the multiplication tables. I replied that he would know them fast enough when he was ready to apply them. For three mortal weeks I reasoned with this schoolmaster, and the only reply I could get from him was: "But your son doesn't know the multiplication tables." In despair I removed him from the school and set him to work at advanced mathematics: algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. He soon discovered the multiplication tables for himself.

In truth, however, opinions on the general question of educational method derived from individual experiences of this kind are entitled to extremely little weight. Professor Wiener protests that his boy is not unusually gifted, just as John Stuart Mill declared, in his autobiography, that he was a man of ordinary endowment, and that the apparently amazing things he had done in his early childhood and youth could be done generally under like teaching. But every teacher of mathematics knows the almost infinite differences among different pupils in their capacity for that study; and if every child that shies at the multiplication table, or finds in it no appeal to his sense of the useful or the beautiful, were to be allowed to postpone acquirement of it until he had been stimulated thereto by his interest in algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, that humble accomplishment would be missing in the repertory of a very respectable number of adults. Still less is the experience of Helen Keller a safe guide for dealing with the multitude; for, whatever may be the case with young Wiener, there can be no question whatever of the extraordinary character of Miss Keller's native gifts of mind and spirit, not to speak of the talent, skill, and devotion of her teacher. The few striking examples of success attained by the operation of the spontaneous interest of keen-minded children, guided by specially able and sympathetic teachers, are brought to public notice again and again; but of the great army of the commonplace, inert, unintellectual children, with whom the rank and file of teachers have constantly to labor, we hear nothing. "Why don't you select a course without mathematics in it?" asked a college professor of a faithful fellow who had failed again and again in calculus. "I like it about as much as anything," was the unexpected and unanswerable response.

Of the importance of making school work interesting to the child there cannot be too full a recognition. The waste and detriment that come from stupid and mechanical drudgery, where real intellectual life might be, is enormous. What we object to in the simple doctrine to which we have been referring is not its overestimating the value of mental interest, but its assumption either that this can be had for the asking or that in its absence nothing should be attempted. Conceivably all this might be true if an unlimited amount of individual attention were available for each child; though even then we believe the doctrine would have its limitations, for it is by no means certain that the discipline involved in mastering difficult, uncongenial tasks is without a great value of its own. But under the actual circumstances, the teacher must strike such balance as he can between the needs of those pupils whose interest is easily excited and of those whose intellectual curiosity is slight; of those to whom mastery of a subject comes with little difficulty, and those to whom it is a painful effort. The alert and able teacher will manage to make the subject interesting to many, while not neglecting to instil a fair knowledge of it into the minds of the others. And he will welcome any plan by which the waste attendant on this rough adjustment can be diminished. Some efforts in this direction are being made by school superintendents, and much more should be done. Rapid promotion for able students, more elasticity in the school routine, an increase of individual discretion on the part of the teachers, above all a higher standard of teaching ability, will help. But the problem will not be solved by the mere introduction of a new doctrine, or the mere adoption of a new attitude; for no one doctrine, and no one attitude, fits the complicated variety of young human beings for whose intellectual welfare the teacher is called on to care.

MISCELLANEOUS GERMAN BOOKS.

The new popular edition of Dr. Paul Schlenther's "Gerhart Hauptmann" (Berlin: S. Fischer) is such a thorough revision of the first edition, which dates back fifteen years, as to be virtually a new work. It is a valuable commentary on the development of Hauptmann during this last decade: it discreetly alludes to crises in his life which affected his work, confirms the impression that the poet's growth has reached a period of transition, and explains some of his recent failures. In the "Jungfern vom Bischofsberg," which

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was hailed by his antagonists as evidence of his decline, he had intended to glorify the halcyon days of his youth spent at Hohenhaus, where the three sisters dwelt that were to become the wives of Georg, Carl, and Gerhart Hauptmann. Women of culture and character they were, and faithful aids of the two poets in their years of storm and stress. But the vein of pure comedy is not strong in Gerhart Hauptmann and the memory of that great happiness had somewhat faded. Thus Schlenther accounts for the weakness of the play which had all the elements of a dramatic success. "Gabriel Schillings Flucht" and "Ratten" were also probably too long delayed and, when at last written, left his workshop before they were ready. In Schlenther's opinion, "The Fool in Christ" seems to indicate the zenith of his powers in those last trying years.

Among the most attractive features of that excellent and now long suspended weekly conducted by the late Theodor Barth, *Die Nation*, were the contributions of Felix Poppenberg. This writer penetrated, as did no one else, the spirit of new authors, and his style had a rare personal flavor. Such qualities make the volume of his essays, entitled "Maskenzüge" (Berlin: Erich Reiss), one of the most interesting of recent publications. The first part is called "Menschlichkeiten." Out of the letters of Hans von Bülow the author has constructed a life-like picture, and has used the correspondence between Bismarck and his wife for a similar purpose. Of curious interest is the chapter entitled "Mein Fürst" and devoted to the famous eccentric, Pückler-Muskau. Poppenberg also pays tribute to Therese Huber, one of the first "advanced" women of Germany in the eighteenth century, and draws a peculiar parallel between her and the type embodied in George Moore's Evelyn Innes and Jakob Wassermann's Renate Fuchs. Some fifty pages are given to studies of several volumes of love letters which the "psychological" inquiry of our time has dragged forth from the past. Poppenberg's comments upon this epistolary literature abound in pungent thought. Caroline Schlegel and Rahel Varnhagen could hardly be better characterized than by his words: "Carolinen-Genialität steht gegenüber das theoretische Liebestalent der Rahel."

Karl Scheffler is a writer who challenges attention by his seriousness and simplicity. His "Gesammelte Essays" (Leipzig: Insel-Verlag) begin with "Die Moral der Qualität," which contains some remarkable statements. Scheffler finds in the nation that daily talks to itself about religion and morals, art and beauty, and tries to prove to itself what is beautiful, moral, or strong, a symptom of its uncertainty and poverty. He deplores the sophisticating power of foregone abstractions and the frantic attempts at producing new forms of culture:

> Die deutsche Nation besteht fast nur noch aus "Gebildeten." Und das ist eben der Grund ihrer Unproduktivität in allen Idealen. Denn die Herrschaft von Theorien und Begriffen bezeichnet stets einen Zustand des Stockens oder Versiegens der eigentlich schöpferischen Kräfte, einen Zustand der Schwäche. . . . Die einzige würdige Kulturpolitik ist die Selbsterziehung des Einzelnen zu reiner und gefühlsstarker Unterscheidungskraft.

For the second group of papers the editor of *Kunst und Künstler* stands sponsor. They deal with the grotesque, with ornament, with German architecture, with the picture-book, and the Christmas tree as works of art, with artists in social life and with those that died young. Scheffler produces a startling array of names to prove that the art of painting lends itself to early development and realization. The paper on "Nationalphrasen" contains this noteworthy passage:

> Je schwieriger der Sinn einer Zeit zu fassen ist, desto reicher geht die Saat der Nationalphrasen auf; je verwirrter ein Geschlecht ist, desto mehr versteckt es seine Unsicherheit hinter falschen Sicherheitsgedanken. Wir sehen die Phrase darum heute regieren und opponieren, befehlen, gehorchen und sich auflehnen, schwärmen und höhnen; sie hat Gastrecht im Lager der Konservativen, der Liberalen und der Sozialdemokraten, im Reichstag und in der Volksversammlung, im Theater und im Gerichtssaal. Nur in die Werkstatt dringt sie nicht, ins Kontor, nicht dahin, wo das wirtschaftliche Leben mit eisernem Zwang absolute Sachlichkeit und produktive Nüchternheit fordert.

The book closes with a paper on youth which is an earnest protest against that German education which trains the intellect at the expense of the body, removes the child further and further from contact with nature, and fosters opportunism. At first sight the rising generation raises hopes. The quantity of talent has enormously increased, but the quality is disappointing. It is "Nerventalent" and a product of greater susceptibility and irritability. Although it is combined with keenness of intellect, Scheffler misses in it the naïve creative element, the manly.

Hermann Bahr's facile pen is also represented by a volume of "Essays" (Insel-Verlag). These papers on an amazing variety of subjects bear traces of having been republished with little or no changes from a newspaper column. But Bahr is exceedingly well informed on everything pertaining to modern letters, music, and art. Nor does he confine himself to the German-speaking part of the European Continent; he deals with Goethe, the Goncourts, and Tolstoy, Klinger, Manet, and Zuloaga, Brahms, Wagner, and Strauss, Sven Hedin, and even Walt Whitman. He says of the last:

> Whitman is the first poet since Goethe who has given art a new motive. All other poets are contained in Goethe. But Whitman discovered a new human realm. He represents the thoughts and emotions and the new rhythm awakened in man when he steps from his isolation into the life of the community. He has discovered the *democratic man for art.*

In one of the essays he emphasizes the difference between the European and the American attitude towards nature, which makes of Thoreau a unique figure among the nature-writers in any language, and envies Americans for having so much earlier than the Europeans learned to live nature. Like Scheffler, Bahr is seriousiy concerned about the German conception of "Bildung." He denies that knowledge and learning solve the problem. He wants education to become a more vital element of life, one that will give us strength to do and to suffer:

> Dies ist Bildung; kein Besitz von Kenntnissen, sondern immer mit aufnehmender Seele bereit zu sein und sich aller Erscheinungen des Lebens zu bemächtigen.

He refers to Goethe, Schopenhauer, Nietzsche, and Paul de Lagarde in support of his opinion, and quotes the late Moritz von Egidy: "Kunst und Wissenschaft nicht mehr neben unserem Leben, unser Leben selbst." His own conception of the mission of education Bahr formulates thus: "Aus theoretischen ästhetische Menschen zu machen, das ist die Aufgabe der Zeit"; and in surveying the work of the German university he comes to these pessimistic conclusions:

> Ich bin im Innersten sehr mistrauisch, ob unser Universitätswesen überhaupt noch irgendeiner Zukunft fähig ist. Es wird heillos viel Kraft vertan, und man kann vor lauter Chinesentum kaum mehr atmen. Rettung ist nur durch die Studenten möglich. Aber nur dann, wenn sie sich entschliessen, ihren absonderlichen Hochmut aufzugeben und am Leben der Nation teilzunehmen. Ihre Zukunft ist beim Volk.

Peter Altenberg is an Austrian of quite different character and calibre. He incarnates the essence of that over-refined intellectuality and over-sensitive emotionalism by which young Austria has added a note of its own to modern German literature. The titles of his works suggest their contents and their quality, "Wie ich es sehe," "Was der Tag mir zuträgt," "Prodromos," "Märchen des Lebens," "Die Auswahl aus meinen Büchern," "Neues Altes," and "Semmering 1912" (Berlin: S. Fischer). They are all intensely personal. His vivisection of the soul produces astonishing results. A group of aphorisms is entitled "Noch nicht einmal Gedankensplitter," and the last part, "Noch nicht einmal Splitter von Gedanken." This characterizes the hair-splitting analysis to which Altenberg subjects his own men-

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tal process. If his "Ideation" produces nothing but "splinters," his emotional life knows nothing but "nuances." Altenberg is a pathetic specimen of a world that has so long scorned direct contact with unspoilt nature that it has become completely estranged from the fundamentals of life.

A library of political and sociological literature is in process of publication by Eugen Diederichs of Jena; it contains a score of very timely works by scholars of eminence. One of the most recent of these publications is Gustav F. Steffen's book, "Die Grundlage der Soziologie." Contrary to the tendency of some modern writers to apply the standards of natural science to all the sciences, Steffen contends that sociology calls for a different treatment from that given to science of inorganic nature. He says in his introduction, in which he acknowledges his indebtedness to Bergson, Wundt, and the Viennese logician, Stöhr:

In der Biologie (oder Physiologie) hat es der Forscher mit einem Gemische des Lebendigen und des Leblosen zu tun. Die Soziologie aber hat zum Gegenstande reines Leben, d. h. nichts als menschliche Bewusstheit und die Wechselwirkungen zwischen den Gedanken, Gefühlen, Bestrebungen des einen Menschen und denen anderer Menschen. Deswegen wird diejenige Methodenfrage, welche schon in der Biologie auftaucht, erst in der Soziologie (und Psychologie) aktuell.

He divides his "system" of sociology into seven parts. The first is contained in his book, "Der Weg zu sozialer Erkenntniss," and the second in "Die Irrwege sozialer Erkenntniss," both published by Diederichs; the third deals with the position of sociology among the sciences, the fourth with the psychic fundamentals of social life; the fifth is called "Das Naturmilieu des sozialen Lebens"; the sixth deals with social groups, and the last with sociological laws. A. von Ende.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

We have turned the pages of some thousands of sale catalogues, but seldom have we been so deeply impressed by the personal interest of the books and manuscripts described, as in our first eager going over of Sotheby's Catalogue of their sale of May 1 to May 8 next. This collection, sold by order of the executor of the late Robert Wiedemann Barrett Browning, comprises the intimate belongings, literary and artistic, of his parents, Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett Browning.

We are not among those who decry the sale of such material, though we may be thankful that the son did not himself in his own lifetime send his family treasures to the auction block. Nor are we one of those who regret that the collection was not given to a public institution. Public institutions are grand helps to culture; they are storehouses of the accumulated treasures of ages; but they have no hearts. These manuscripts and letters of the two Brownings—these books given to them by their friends, fellow torch-bearers of "life and love and light"—will, as they become scattered, give inspiration, or exaltation, or, at the least, a keen pleasure in possession, to many a future owner, some true and sincere admirers and lovers of the Brownings and their writings, others, perhaps, mere collectors of literary rarities.

The catalogue is in five parts, the first, paintings and engravings, containing among others a drawing by Rossetti, the Portrait of Tennyson Reading Maud, and several portraits of Mr. and Mrs. Browning; the second, the manuscripts and letters; the third, the books, and the last, the objects of use or ornament, comprising such personal relics as Mrs. Browning's writing case, as she left it on June 29, 1861; her table, upon which she is said to have written "Aurora Leigh" at Casa Guidi; and a reliquary containing a lock of Milton's hair.

The manuscripts and books interest us most. At the head of all is lot 166, the Love Letters, two hundred and eighty-four letters from Robert Browning and two hundred and eighty-seven from Elizabeth Barrett Browning, the only letters which ever passed between this pair, for after their marriage husband and wife were never for a day apart.

The manuscripts of most of Robert Browning's books are in the library of Balliol College, Oxford; one important volume, the collection of poems printed under the title of "Dramatis Personæ," is in the J. Pierpont Morgan library, and one is offered in this sale. This is Browning's last book, "Asolando," published on the day of his death, December 12, 1889, ninety-three pages of manuscript. An equally priceless manuscript is "A Last Word to E. B. B.," six pages, first printed with the title "One Word More" as the final poem in the collection "Men and Women," published in 1855.

There are other Robert Browning manuscripts in the sale, but they are scrappy in character. The poet, many years before his death, destroyed the manuscripts of many of his early writings.

But an unsuspected wealth of Mrs. Browning's manuscripts has been preserved, first in importance being the complete autograph manuscript of "Aurora Leigh," 410 pages, octavo. Of less bulk, but no less precious, are the forty-three "Sonnets from the Portuguese," the printer's copy used in the edition of 1850; also earlier drafts of twenty-seven of the Sonnets. Two manuscripts of "An Essay on Mind," both incomplete; manuscripts of "Prometheus Bound," "Casa Guidi Windows," and "Poems Before Congress" are other important lots. Besides these, there are numerous note books, some containing very early poems, and several parcels of odds and ends of manuscript. Robert Browning seems to have collected his wife's letters from their recipients, and here they are—between three and four hundred to Miss Mitford; two hundred and forty to Hugh Stuart Boyd, the blind scholar; fifty-five to Mrs. Jameson, and others. Many of these are unpublished.

Among letters to the Brownings are series by Carlyle, Landor, Ruskin, Swinburne, Tennyson, Rossetti, Leigh Hunt, Locker Lamson, Lord Lytton, B. W. Procter, and others, besides one letter from Dickens and two from Thackeray. Of the greatest literary interest is Rossetti's first letter to Browning, in which he tells him that, two or three months before, he had found at the British Museum a poem, published in 1833, entitled "Pauline: A Fragment of a Confession," which, not being able to procure from the publisher, he had transcribed entire. From its analogy in style to "Paracelsus," he surmised it to have been written by Browning.

The most valuable of the printed books is a copy, in the original boards with label, of this same "Pauline," Robert Browning's first book, but its proper companion, Mrs. Browning's first book, "The Battle of Marathon," of which fifty copies were printed in 1820, does not appear. There are several copies of some of her later books, and for the most part they are inscribed copies. Of "An Essay on Mind" (1826) there are the copy given by Miss Barrett to her mother, the copy given to her sister Arabel, and a third with autograph signature of Robert Browning. Of the "Poems Before Congress" (1860) there is the copy given by Mrs. Browning to Robert Browning, with interesting manuscript matter inserted, and another copy given by Robert Browning to their son. Several of Browning's own books are presentation copies to the son, whom they called "Pen" or "Penini."

The library contains a few old books picked up from time to time by Mr. or Mrs. Browning (one, as he has noted, bought by weight), mostly bearing the signature of one or the other; but the principal value lies in the nineteenth-century books, given to Mr. or Mrs. Browning by their several authors. These include books with inscriptions by Tennyson, Landor, Carlyle, Meredith, Ruskin, Rossetti, Matthew Arnold, Leigh Hunt, William Morris, and Thomas Hardy. Among Americans are presentation copies of books from Lowell, Hawthorne, Whittier, and Bret Harte.

Correspondence

THE NEW POETRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In various current discussions of the work of the cubist and futurist painters it has been remarked that there are signs of similar efforts in the field of literary composition. Thoughtful observers are beginning to be conscious that in poetry, as in music, the principles of Futurism have come to be accepted in theory and attempted in practice by a significantly respectable number of persons, and that their effect upon the present and future of these arts cannot be left without consideration. In saying this I do not venture to assume any complete understanding of what the principles in question are. Judged by their fruits, however, they may be summed up under the several formulæ which students of literary history recognize in connection with the familiar types of the morbid hypertrophy of romanticism—for example, these: (1) the exaggeration of the importance of a personal emotion; (2) the abandonment of all standards of form, and (3) the suppression of all evidence that a particular com-

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position is animated by any directing intelligence.

These remarks are suggested by a rather painful bit of recent evidence in the field of poetry. A year ago there appeared a new periodical, called *Poetry, a Magazine of Verse*, which was heralded as an organ which should at once prove that poetry still lives in these United States and help to make it live the more. It was said to be endowed; it was to pay all contributors; it was to emanate from Chicago—all these things suggested a fine hopeful vigor. A year has passed, and the magazine has seemed, on the whole, to maintain the hopes it excited; it has, at least, been able to present a considerable amount of new poetry from writers both known and unknown. But at the end of the twelvemonth the editor expresses some discouragement with the offerings that have come to view. The causes of this discouragement deserve attention. The young poets, it seems, are "pathetically ingenuous" in their attitude; they seem "as unaware of the twentieth century as if they had spent these recent years in an Elizabethan manor-house or a vine-clad Victorian cottage." And by this it is not meant that they are not alive to the current interests of the race, but that they write "in old forms which have been worn thin by five centuries," instead of forging new "chains for the English language," as if it had never before been subdued to poetry. Even Mr. Alfred Noyes tries to keep alive epic and ballad measures, and even Mr. Masefield swings into the stride of Byronic verse. The younger generation, we may infer, has not yet been made sufficiently immune to the stimuli of the poetry of the past. They cannot, to be sure, read Greek—there is no complaint of sapphics and hexameters, as there would have been in other days—but they do seem still to read their Shakespeare, Wordsworth, and Tennyson, and to have lighted their fire from these poets, instead of viewing them as a builder of a modern casino ought to view "an Elizabethan manor-house or a vine-clad Victorian cottage."

In order that we may be in no doubt as to what the editor of *Poetry* welcomes, in contrast to these trite effusions, the same number gives more than half of its poetic pages to a collection of what may safely be called futurist verses. They open thus:

> Will people accept them? (*i. e.*, these songs);

they refer with elaborate indecorousness to the reporters, professors, and pretty ladies who will *not* accept them; they flaunt occasional indecencies which are at once harmless and inexcusable, because unconnected with passion; they are guiltless of form, as form is known to masters or students of the art of poetry—in short, they exhibit with wanton richness all the signs of what I have called the morbid hypertrophy of romanticism. That they are not without certain merits is not to the point just here.

I am firmly of the opinion that the morbid banalities of Futurism are better ignored than attacked, and should not think of addressing this letter either to the editor or the constituency of *Poetry*. But for those of us interested in the present state of the arts, and still in allegiance also to the old laws, it cannot fail to be a matter of concern that the younger generation, aspiring—as always—to do for us what others have done for other ages, should be nurtured in part upon the undoubtedly sincere nonsense of the editorial I have outlined, and probably insincere nonsense of the verses that form its background. There is a moral here, of some sort, for all who can exert any influence upon the young. As I have already hinted, I do not think it is to the effect that we should raise the cry against the false prophets and their art—"Tear them! Ho! fire-brands! Burn all!"—but rather that we should renew our energies in teaching the right principles on which all true art is founded, and so enable our children to test and throw aside the products of distorted imaginations, even if they are fascinatingly novel and full of color and noise.

I have one other humble aim in writing this letter. Being at present an eligible witness from the great Middle West whence the magazine *Poetry* arises, I wish to offer my testimony that hereabouts, as elsewhere, the old poetry is still what is wanted by the two kinds of readers that alone count in the long run; the great mass of the plain people, and the great mass of the truly cultivated—the readers and teachers of literature. When Mr. Noyes was lately here, his Elizabethan ballads and Victorian lyrics were received with really notable enthusiasm—not because he is a great poet (whether he is or no is not implied), but because he speaks the language, metrical, emotional, and ethical, of our race. If the contributor to *Poetry* were to appear among us, urging his songs to

> Dance and make people blush,

without the riot of advertising which preceded the paintings of the kindred school, his work would also attract two classes of admirers, but two classes which are fortunately small in number—the frankly lascivious and the devotees of *art nouveau*. "So hath it been, so be it," whether in the vicinity of Chicago or the antipodes.

RAYMOND MACDONALD ALDEN.

The University of Illinois, March 11.

EXCHANGE PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many subjects were offered for discussion at the interesting conference of college French professors, which was held recently in New York, and was honored by the presence of his Excellency the Ambassador of France to Washington, M. Jusserand, and by Prof. J. Bédier, of the Collège de France, a special delegate of the French Government for this occasion. One of these questions—that of exchange professors—is of general interest.

Prof. Hugh Smith, of the University of Wisconsin, gave an impressive picture of the conditions prevailing in some of the Western universities regarding the difficulty in arousing interest in certain subjects, when the university was left to its own resources; he mentioned the system of the exchange professorships as a means of coping with the difficulty.

After speaking of the foreign exchange professors—an idea familiar to us all—he suggested the idea of domestic exchange professors. This has been for a long time a pet idea of mine, and possibly for this reason the paper of Professor Smith appealed to me particularly.

Our students can hardly be said to get all the benefit possible from a foreign exchange professor. The question of language is always a difficulty, except for English scholars. Few Continental professors know English well enough to give the full measure of their attainments. And if they speak their own language, they are not understood by many. We need not deceive ourselves on this point; many go to lectures of foreigners to see, not to hear. Moreover, a professor from abroad can seldom have the necessary insight into the mind of the American student; whereas, evidently, a man who has taught in America and who knows the conditions, can bring about better results, even if he should not be as scholarly or as original as his European colleague.

Suppose, then, that instead of taking a foreign scholar, we take a professor of some other American university, let us say a Columbia man exchanging with a Wisconsin man, the chances are that there will be nothing but profit for the University, for the professor, and for the student.

For the college: A new man is always an inspiration. And he can be that without disturbing the equilibrium of a department; since only frequent changes in the regular staff would be harmful. If the visitor is better than the man he is exchanged for, he stimulates; if he is not so good, he acts none the less as a stimulant—indirectly—by allowing the people of the institution to realize their superiority, and prompting the desire to maintain the standard, and even to raise it higher.

For the professor: To face another set of students than those he is used to in his own classroom at home, has a most stimulating effect. Those of us who have done summer-school work have felt this keenly. Summer-school work is perhaps not to be encouraged because it only adds summer fatigue to winter fatigue. But the good effect without the ill could be derived from a system of exchange.

For the student: With the present arrangement of the college curriculum, it is difficult for our students to go from one institution to another, as they do in Europe, and thus to obtain the advantage of variety of teaching. By the occasional exchange professorships, a college would render the student the service of forcing him to change, and preventing him from limiting his experience of instructors. Even should the student still prefer the first professor, he would by comparison realize better why he likes him and not the other—a result by no means negligible.

ALBERT SCHINZ.

Bryn Mawr College, April 12.

THE AMERICAN DISCOVERED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Are we not safe, even in a popular scientific monthly, from the cocksureness of the generalizer who knows by the actions of two or three what *all* Americans do? Herr Henning, of Denver, has confided to the Berlin periodical, *Himmel und Erde*, that the "average" American has neither liking for nature and its beauties nor understanding of them. This he proves by stating that Americans prefer to go to Europe with well-filled purse, and play the

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"noble." We do not care for our own country. The "considerable number" of tourists which the railways carry to our various natural sights are almost entirely from Europe. Not even do we take walks for scenic pleasure or geologic study. Our mountain clubs, merely for sport, do not compare in any instance with the European clubs, especially the Deutsch-Oesterreichischer Verein. We have "no popular scientific literature of any kind," and descriptions of travel are to be found "höchstens" (!) in a few of the better magazines which cater to a small public. Herr Henning sums this up as conclusive proof that we are not won over to nature, but prefer to give all our time to amassing dollars.

This is followed by a few paragraphs of personal experiences to show even more decidedly how black our ignorance is. While one is genially disposed to grant the ignorance, one cannot help feeling assured that in these particular instances the good professor has been the butt of an impertinent American waggishness. The American wears not only his learning lightly, but also his ignorance.

In answering his question, "Why does the American know so little of what is A B C to even the German yokel?" Herr Henning comes to the heart of the matter. Our "education!" *Ach weh!* It suffers the ignominy of quotation marks. We have no education—that is, what we have is "virtually the same all over the country" and is on the "lowest thinkable level." The cause is the total inefficiency of our teachers, women teachers, that is. This he proves by one example of incapacity of one teacher in Milwaukee. Teacher, textbook, and superintendent of public instruction are all political institutions, here today, gone to-morrow, never adequate to the situation. The superintendent, by the way, is "in most States a woman."

As for the high schools, they are "boys' and girls' clubs," serving merely for sports and flirting. Learning, if at all, is poor and secondary in importance. No pupil knows anything when graduated. Proof of this is seen from the description of Darwin by a young lady graduate. She called him a "traitor against Scotland in the time of Mary, Queen of Scots."

Darwin reminds him of modern philosophic conceptions. We haven't any! They are forbidden, it seems. The church, which we thought separated from the state, holds us in its grasp, and will not let us study science, especially geology.

Herr Henning now comes to his conclusion with the acknowledgment that though there are many, many flies, there is a little ointment after all. The United States Geological Survey is a "grossartige" institution, and six of our universities are commendable. The men in these institutions have studied at "real" universities here, or—more probably—have learned true science ("echte Wissenschaft") in a German university. Herr Henning calls upon us to oust the females ("Frauenspersonen") from their desks and replace them with educated men teachers, and then we may hope to raise our standard. Then light may come "ex-Oriente" over the Western mind. HARRIET ANDERSON.

New York, April 12.

LIVINGSTONE AND STANLEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was struck, upon reading your appreciative article on Livingstone, by the concluding paragraph:

> Americans of a generation back got their most vivid knowledge of Livingstone through Henry M. Stanley. The remarkable influence which Livingstone exerted upon Stanley, in the time they were together, has not often been noted, although the latter freely confessed it. But the fact is that Stanley was thereafter a changed man. He had been simply a keen and somewhat jaunty newspaper correspondent, ready to face hardship and go anywhere in order to get a sensational bit of news. But it seemed as if virtue went out of Livingstone to Stanley; for thereafter he entered upon the phase of his life which, with all its unhappy mistakes, brought out his qualities and won him his place on the list of African explorers. It all dated from that historic meeting in Ujiji.

It is quite true that Livingstone left a lifelong impress on Henry M. Stanley, but if you will look back at your files of 1871 I think you will find that you expressed doubt of the whole story of Stanley's discovery of Livingstone, because the style of Livingstone's letters, which Stanley brought back with him from the heart of Africa, were so utterly different from Livingstone's previous writings as to stamp the whole story as a fiction. Livingstone had had no intercourse with the white man for years, had not spoken the English language, and his letters were interlarded with the newspaper slang which Stanley at that time used. JAMES DOUGLAS.

New York, April 2.

Literature

A LEADER OF MODERNISM.

Autobiography and Life of George Tyrrell. In Two Volumes, Arranged with Supplements, by M. D. Petre. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $6 net.

The duplex authorship and nature of this book are shown by the wording of its title. It is both an "autobiography" and a "life," the second beginning where the first leaves off. The Autobiography, which fills the first volume, was written in 1901, when Father Tyrrell was forty years old, and covers the period from his birth to the death of his mother in 1884. The Life, which fills the (much larger) second volume, is written by Miss Petre, a woman who knew Father Tyrrell intimately, and who has, by a very generous use of his letters to friends and foes, made the latter part of the work as autobiographical as possible.

The Autobiography is a rather strange work. It was not intended for publication, and Tyrrell's purpose in writing it seems to have been to make clear to himself, if possible, how he came to be a Catholic and a Jesuit. The work gives one the impression that throughout the years recounted, and, in fact, even while writing the book, the author was puzzled with himself. And, whether this was the case or not, certainly the reader who tries to understand Tyrrell's drift from Protestantism into the Society of Jesus will be puzzled. But the puzzle itself makes the Autobiography a peculiarly interesting document. The details of Tyrrell's outer life during these first twenty-three years are dull enough, to be sure; the interest is altogether centred in the strange spiritual drift towards a goal which, he assures us again and again, frequently repelled him. Born and brought up in a strongly anti-Catholic atmosphere in Ireland, he was as a child almost lacking in any religious sense, and at ten ceased, as he says, to be even a "non-believer" and became an "unbeliever." According to his own account, he had few redeeming features even of an intellectual or moral sort—"untruthful, violent, irreligious, idle, and good for nothing except ineffectual tinkering." But at about fourteen two new influences came by the merest chance into his life, which eventually were seen to mark the beginnings of his one real interest. He happened, namely, to read Butler's "Analogy" and so to gain a new respect for religion, and he happened to drift into a high Anglican church in Dublin, apparently because it bore the euphonious name of "Grangegorman."

Grangegorman interested and pleased him from his first visit, why, he hardly knew, except that he "felt instinctively that the difference between an altar and a communion table was infinite." And when his mother criticised some features of the service he flew eagerly to its defence, and his liking for it grew as a consequence. "Thus," he writes, "my first interest was in the very fringe and extreme outskirts of Christianity, and from these I was gradually driven, by force and need of consistency, to the centre and core. The wish that the whole system might be true, the wish that I could pray and believe, was soon strong in me, and made me disposed to catch at any shadow of justification for belief." And though for years he still felt considerable repugnance at the "tawdriness" of the Irish Catholic churches, and was also quite unable to accept intellectually the Catholic doctrines, he determined at this early time to enter the service of the Church—and, if possible, of the Catholic Church—and to give his life to the cause of religion.

It was, apparently, the genuine desire to be of service, coupled with the "will to believe;" that led him not only out of boyish "infidelity" into membership in the Anglican Church, but out of that into the Roman fold. For if, by any chance, the Catholic claims *were* true, then in its service would be found the greatest opportunity for usefulness. In 1879, under the influence of Father Dolling, Tyrrell left Ireland for a short visit

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(as he thought) in London; though as it turned out he was never to revisit his native land. In London he saw both Anglo-Catholicism and Roman Catholicism at greater advantage, and here the wish-to-believe had its full sway with him. "I felt," he says, "it would be Rome or nothing. I knew dimly that I had not any real *faith* in Rome—only a great wish that I could believe."

The same desire for service and will-to-believe that led him into Catholicism took him over, at the same time, the whole distance into the Society of Jesus. It was characteristic of his big nature to do thoroughly whatever he did at all. He knew little about the Society, but to his boyish imagination there was a glorious halo of self-devotion around it; and his belief that Protestants had foully maligned it and that its one great aim was unstinted service in the cause of religion and the cause of truth settled the matter for him. In an impulsive moment he turned both Catholic and Jesuit.

No sooner was Tyrrell within the Society of Jesus than the inevitable process of disillusion began. On nearer acquaintance it turned out to be anything but what he had expected; and the last six chapters of the Autobiography form a rather sad account of the struggle of his still brave will-to-believe against the disappointing dearth of the spirit and of any sort of enthusiasm for the defence of truth, coupled with the "wooden and mechanical" exercises and uninspiring tone of the community, to which he could not fully blind himself.

The Autobiography ends in the midst of his struggle to make himself into a good Jesuit—a struggle carried on while teaching in Jesuit schools in Cyprus and Malta, and while studying at Manresa and Stonyhurst—and the Life takes up the tale in the same rather sad epoch.

The interest of most readers in this second volume will centre upon Tyrrell's continued efforts to be an orthodox Catholic and a good Jesuit, the gradual wearying of even his stout will-to-believe, his final rupture with the Society, and at last his break with Rome. The beginning of the end came at about the time he wrote his Autobiography—namely, in 1900, when his article on "A Perverted Devotion" (an attack upon the dogma of Eternal Punishment) was censured by the Jesuit authorities. Not only was his work condemned; but he was forced to publish what he calls "an absolutely fatuous and unmeaning" retraction of it, and was restricted both in his writing and in his work as a priest. For a time he endured these conditions, but before long he found that life in the Society of Jesus was for him unendurable, and he applied for a release, accompanying his request by several long letters to the General in which he expresses in no uncertain terms his feelings of disgust towards the Society which had been suppressed so long. The request was temporarily withdrawn before it was technically granted, but in 1906 he was suspended from the Society on account of a certain heretical and unsigned article of his which had come to the General's notice. Once out of the Society, he was in a rather anomalous position. No Bishop would receive him into his diocese. Hence, though a Catholic priest of good and regular standing, he could not *act* as a priest anywhere. And though for some time he made futile efforts to regain the "celebret," he seems to have felt really much happier out of the priesthood than would have been possible for him under the restrictions which an active priest is bound to observe. In fact, from now on to the end we find Tyrrell more and more the militant champion of truth, nothing loath for any encounter in its defence, and with the old desire to subject himself to authority quite gone. The wish-to-believe had played itself out.

In this militant mood Tyrrell could take but one attitude towards the Pope's Encyclical Letter "Pascendi" of September, 1907. In characteristically bold fashion he published an answer to the Pope in the *Times* and the *Giornale d'Italia*. And to this attitude of Tyrrell's the Vatican could make but one response, namely, to deprive him of the Sacraments—which it did in October, 1907. In spite of this virtual excommunication, however, and in spite of all the faults and weaknesses in the Catholic Church which he so plainly saw, he persisted in calling himself a Catholic to the very end. The Anglican Church, to be sure, had strong attractions for him in his later years—so strong that he seems at times to have considered seriously the step of returning to it. The fact is not without significance that when the end came, in July, 1909, the Church of his adoption refused to admit his body within her consecrated ground, and he was buried, by a Catholic abbé, in the hospitable soil of the Church of his baptism.

To write the life of such a man was no easy task, and Miss Petre has done her work well. In spite of her friendship for Tyrrell, she has in no place indulged in anything like panegyric. She has stated the facts of his spiritual history in almost coldly simple terms. And if the reader feels at the end (as he probably will) that he has been led into something warmer than mere admiration for George Tyrrell, it will be due to the genuine nobility and sweetness of his nature. His life was a strange one, exhibiting the struggle between two fundamental human tendencies, the will-to-believe and the love of truth. Had the former of these not enjoyed undisputed sway in his earlier years, George Tyrrell would never have entered the Catholic Church, and would have led a much happier and more peaceful life. But had he done so his unique service to the cause of liberal religion, and let us hope to the Catholic Church itself, would never have been performed.

CURRENT FICTION.

Deering of Deal. By Latta Griswold. New York: The Macmillan Co.

To the child of any age and of either sex a story of a boys' school makes perennial appeal. The prevailing note of this one justifies its sub-title, "The Spirit of the School." Possibly, few others have so emphasized this motive as tingeing not only the boys' work and play, but the morale and tradition of the school, and supplying a permanent court of appeal for boys and masters. If discipline seems a little brutal at times, a little lax at other times, the instances are superficial and not of the substance of the book. A fine manliness is the code on the whole, and the boys make interesting portraits. There are thrilling ball games, wonderful feats of swimming, adventurous visits to delightful pirate caves in the woods, with all the joys of cryptic cooking—a poor thing, but their own. There is hazing cleverly met and cruelty signally punished. There are the ups and downs of boy friendships, the purblind teacher, the hopeless boy. But Tony Deering and his little knot of friends are good and pleasant company, while the masters, for the most part, the prefects, and the fine old Head inspire even the casual reader with a fondness for Deal School. Mr. Griswold distinctly states that the school exists only in his imagination, though sharing certain topographical features with the school at Newport with which he is connected. In the atmosphere of sea and beach, river and wood lies not a small part of the charm of the story, nor the least of the influences on the spirit of the school. We may hope that it is the scapegoat proof-reader and not the author who continually lets "whom" take the place of a nominative; and writes of "exceptionable" privilege and "unctious" enjoyment.

Stella Maris. By W. J. Locke. New York: John Lane Co.

As most readers will already know, the heroine who gives her beautiful name to this book is a young girl who, owing to some weakness of the spine, passes her days lying on her back in a chamber whose windows look out over the ocean. Her life is a kind of fairy

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dream to herself, and to her kinsfolk and friends she is the star of the sea, Stella Maris, a gleam from some fairy sky. The friends are two young men of London, one an idealistic actor, the other a burly writer for the press whose wife has been sent to jail for vicious cruelty, and who takes into his charge the victim of her mania, a homely orphan girl. Of course, Stella Maris is cured of her weakness, and becomes an object of more human devotion to the two young men. The plot therefrom develops logically, but not without some surprises and some melodrama.

Mr. Locke reaches a deeper tone in this story than he has ever done before. The whimsicality of his manner is in evidence, but there is a strain of strong feeling running beneath it all, passing through horror to tears. The book is a success; and yet, after it is laid down and the first swell of emotion has subsided, one begins to wonder whether there is not somewhere a false note in the appeal, something hollow in the fabric. Perhaps these questions are provoked by the author's style: it is clever, but with a certain petulance; it is on occasion poetical, but the effects have been obtained by cunning and do not rise from a quietly nourished imagination. A more serious artistic defect is the inability of Mr. Locke, as of most of our modern writers when earnest, to speak from a large and immediate sympathy with humanity. There is sympathy in abundance, but troubled and deflected by humanitarian philosophies and prejudices.

But, withal, the first impression of a novel in these days is the thing. And the charm of "Stella Maris," if somewhat equivocal to a slower judgment, is quick and entrancing to the impressionable reader.

Pilgrims of the Plains. By Kate A. Aplington. Chicago: F. G. Browne & Co.

The diary method of story-telling has gone out of fashion, but it has its advantages. It is especially appropriate to this tale of a journey over the Santa Fé trail in the forties; it gives a verisimilitude which could not easily be obtained in any other way. It also brings out unobtrusively the quaint and quiet charm of "Deya," the diarist-heroine, a delightfully old-fashioned girl. These are the two great merits of the book. There is not much plot, and the heroine is not remarkably successful in characterizing other people; but she gives a naïvely attractive account of herself, and her story of the caravan and its progress over the plains has a reality which recalls Parkman's narrative.

This is partly due to the author's mastery not only of local color, but of what we may call temporal color. In style and substance the book is steeped in the atmosphere and sentiment of mid-Continental and mid-century America. The dress, the manners, the language, the songs of that earlier time are all there; generally not forced upon the reader's notice, but part of the story. The author has been especially interested in the songs of the period, and has included the words and the music of many of them. In their diversity they suggest the widely variant elements of the people; they are English, Scotch, Irish, German, African, and Indian. There is an interesting version, with music, of "Lord Thomas and Fair Eleanor"; there is "Captain Kidd," and "Martin Halligan's Aunt," and "The Battle of Point Pleasant." We cannot resist the temptation to quote "Robin Tamson's Smiddy," with its admirable sneezing chorus:

Last Monday night at sax o'clock,
To *Mirren* Gibbs' I went, man,
To meet wi' some old cronies there,
It was my sole intent, man.
So down we sat wi' right good will,
Syne I pu'd out my sneeshin' mill.
And took a pinch wi' right good will,
O' Beggars' Brown, the best in town,
Then sent it round aboot the room
To gie ilk' ane a scent, man,
Yi-den-derry, Yi-den-derry,
Yi-den-derry, yaw, man!
Yi-den-derry, Yi-den-derry,
Yi-den-derry, yaw, man!

The Story of Stephen Compton. By J. E. Patterson. New York: George H. Doran Co.

It is surprising to see how few novelists are primarily interested in human life and character. The author of "Stephen Compton" regretfully admits in his preface that in a novel, "after all, the bulk of the matter must be a human story," but it is clear that he is chiefly interested in weightier affairs. He has written a rather odd mixture of old-fashioned Sunday-school book and sociological novel-with-a-purpose. We meet the old friends of our childhood; the two brothers—one a cripple, endowed with all the virtues, the other just as generously equipped with all the vices. The virtuous Stephen, though he is peculiarly attractive to women, on more than one occasion fairly out-Josephs Joseph. After a long struggle upward, during which he supports the worthless and vicious Amos, Stephen becomes Prime Minister, and puts through an extensive programme of reform legislation. His main idea seems to be the nationalization of land with its improvements. Amos, the wicked, comes to a suitably discreditable end. The *deus ex machina* by whose aid Stephen is enabled to realize his great ambition is an American multi-millionaire who for some unexplained reason is desirous of reforming England.

The style of the book is wordy, involved, and inaccurate. One sentence will serve as a sample: "Hence the two men went down together—while Mahafferty, now also at the Bar, journeyed to the north, on a political trip of his own—Bryanstone being gloomy and depressed, to fits of which he had been subjected recently." The volume can be recommended with confidence to teachers of rhetoric in search of horrible examples.

Poor Dear Margaret Kirby. By Kathleen Norris. New York: The Macmillan Co.

In "Mother" and "The Rich Mrs. Burgoyne" this writer expressed a wholesome philosophy of unworldliness. She holds a brief for the old-fashioned woman, who prefers the ancient and blessed duties of wifehood and motherhood, and even of housewifery, to the ardors of social emulation. The excitements of bridge and the activities of the women's club fare equally ill at her hands. The fruitless and exhausting process of keeping up with one's neighbors is a particular object of her quiet ridicule. There is no sharpness in her satire, since it is based on pity rather than scorn. It is her task to show that all the really happy women in America are the contented wives and mothers and housekeepers who stick to their jobs and make the most of them. The bridge players and the social strivers, the women who follow "culture" or political privilege, are simply outsiders and unfortunates. This is all very reactionary, but it evidently appeals to a large constituency of readers. It is, we dare say, of a piece with the "return to the soil" motive in popular literature.

The short stories here collected were published in magazines, ranging from the *Atlantic Monthly* to the *Metropolitan*. Read together, with the two longer stories of the same character in mind, they pall a little. They are likely to remind the most devotedly domestic of readers that a vein of sentiment, however wholesome, must be worked with caution if it is not to run out in sentimentalism. Children are not at all hours creatures of delight. To the household toiler even the women's club may offer a refreshing change of drudgery. People are not always made happier by losing their money. But in hundreds of thousands of homes among our striving fellow-citizens, the doctrine of home no doubt needs preaching. And to give a sermon power over a miscellaneous audience requires iteration and a heightening of emphasis which the mere artist avoids. If these tales are tracts, they are tracts in the best sense, presented with skill, and inspired by real feeling.

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GREEK METRIC.

The Verse of Greek Comedy. By John Williams White, Professor of Greek Emeritus in Harvard University. London: Macmillan & Co. 12s. net.

When Schmidt's "Leitfaden" was published (1869), Professor White welcomed the system offered in that work and in 1883 published a translation of it. Since that time he has published several works, including articles in journals, on the subject, and he has been for a number of years working on Aristophanes. He came, therefore, to the present undertaking exceptionally well equipped. The extent of the change that has taken place in his views can best be understood if one compares his translation of the "Leitfaden" (which he fully endorsed) with the book under review. It would be difficult to find any other two works on any one subject as diametrically opposed in thesis. This fact does not necessarily discredit the later work, which is an important contribution to the New Metric.

Professor White relies chiefly on the testimony of the ancients, and on their theory of the origin and history of the various verse-forms, filling gaps by means of a careful study of the extant poetry. The book is not adapted to the use of undergraduates; but for Greek scholars, whether they accept the author's views or not, the work is indispensable.

In the Introduction is given a brief history of the modern doctrine of ancient metres, beginning with Hermann. We should have expected some mention of Bentley, since he originated what Hermann afterwards named anacrusis, and discovered the synaphea of anapæstic systems. In the rest of the work every topic pertaining to comic verse is fully discussed, and in the treatment of the various metres virtually exhaustive statistics are given to illustrate all the phenomena about which any question might arise.

A brief comparison will show the difference between the author's former and his present views. In his earlier work the greatest importance is attached to "ictus" in the modern sense of "stress"; several pages are devoted specially to it, and in the treatment of every kind of foot and verse it plays an important part. Some ictuses are stronger than others, and one foot may have two or even three ictuses. But now the author denies that there ever was any ictus (stress) in ancient Greek music or poetry. That Schmidt's hair-splitting distinctions between ictuses of different strength rested on no foundation was obvious to many, nor is Professor White the first to deny that there was any stress at all. There is no mention of stress in extant ancient works, and it is true that if one reads any of the familiar metres, making long syllables really long and short syllables really short, the rhythm will take care of itself. The rhythmical sense being aroused, the reciter will observe the quantity more exactly than in reciting prose, and the feet will be unconsciously equalized. Still, it is difficult to believe that, when spondees replaced anapæsts, they were recited exactly as they were when they replaced dactyls, or that dactyls replacing anapæsts were exactly like true dactyls, or that a series of resolved trochees or iambs was recited simply as a series of short syllables. Professor White himself seems unconsciously to recognize stress when (p. 55) he says: "The penthemimeral and hephthemimeral pauses so divide the trimeter that the second rhythmical phrase always begins strongly with a thesis." What does "strongly" mean here?

In the author's earlier work all rhythms were "descending," those that begin with the arsis being "treated with anacrusis" or analogously; but in the book before us there is no anacrusis, or basis. We could wish that the author had been more explicit here. The anapæst he divides into arsis and thesis; but the *measure* is the dipody or monometer, which is likewise divided into arsis and thesis, and points, indicating the "down time," are placed over *both parts* of the second foot. But, surely, the thesis of the second foot, that is, its ictus in whatever sense we use the term, must agree with that of the dipody. Soldiers marching certainly planted their feet as the thesis of each anapæst began. Analogous difficulties arise in the case of other metres, especially iambics.

In the treatment of cæsura, the author seems to us to have insisted too strongly upon the necessity of a grammatical pause and upon considering such pauses as having rhythmical significance. Even in elegiac verse there is often no grammatical pause, but close connection, at the point where the verse is invariably divided. The fact that a late writer of unknown date says the cæsura in hexameters falls at the close of a "thought," need not concern us. We have the Iliad and the Odyssey, and can see for ourselves. To appeal to such an authority is like citing Aristotle to prove that comets are atmospheric phenomena connected with earthquakes.

Too much importance seems to be attached to Hephæstion. This author does not reveal any acquaintance with Aristoxenus, as he treats all the metres known to him and yet gives no hint of that "irrationality" which Aristoxenus fully explains. Some scholars, indeed, believe that irrationality is mentioned in the "Enchiridion," but they obviously misinterpret the passage in which it is supposed to be mentioned.

There are several other matters concerning which the views expressed seem open to question. Of this fact the author himself is aware, and not rarely indicates the tentative nature of his theories.

The book is well printed. We noted only two or three errors in the Greek examples and as many in the accompanying metrical schemes.

The Story of My Boyhood and Youth. With illustrations from sketches by the author. By John Muir. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2 net.

John Muir's account of his early years, printed serially in the *Atlantic Monthly*, has now been published in book form. It is a notable piece of autobiographic writing—the story of an unusually interesting boyhood and youth told with an energy and an eye for the diverting and significant that distinguish it at once from the slipshod garrulity of most books of the kind. One may open the volume at any page and be confident of striking either a passage of extraordinarily vivid description or an entertaining episode that closes with a curious solemnizing effect. As a literary artist, Mr. Muir sins at times through using loose constructions and phrases of doubtful reputation, and his galloping style on occasion quite runs away with him; but although the ruthless future may choose to forget the book on account of these weaknesses, the generous present will find them unimportant in comparison with the excellences.

The first fifty pages are devoted to the author's boyhood in Dunbar, beside the North Sea—the discipline of his simple life at home, under the eye and the switch of a sober, "all-Bible" father; his learning by heart the entire New Testament and three-fourths of the Old; his lessons in self-reliance through daily and more than daily fist fights; his precious holidays in the country, listening to the skylarks and running ten or twenty miles at a stretch; his early skill at climbing, manifested, on one occasion, by his perching astride of the dormer roof when his mother had left him sleeping like a gude bairn; and his instruction at school by the old-fashioned Scotch teachers. "We were simply driven pointblank against our books like soldiers against the enemy, and sternly ordered, 'Up and at 'em. Commit your lessons to memory.' If we failed in any part, however slight, we were whipped; for the grand, simple, all-sufficing Scotch discovery had been made that there was a close connection between the skin and the memory, and that irritating the skin excited the memory to any required degree."

At the age of eleven he accompanied the family "to the wonderful schoolless, bookless American wilderness"—"Oh, that glorious Wisconsin wilderness!

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Everything new and pure in the very prime of the spring when Nature's pulses were beating highest and mysteriously keeping time with our own!" They settled a dozen miles from Portage, before a lily-rimmed pond which they named Fountain Lake, and here, by dint of an extraordinary energy even exceeding that characteristic of immigrants, had soon established a prosperous farm. Eight years later they moved to a larger tract of land in the neighborhood and the relentless labor began once more; "even when sick we were held to our task as long as we could stand." Yet these were the happiest of days. The chapters that form the bulk of the volume (A New World, Life on a Wisconsin Farm, A Paradise of Birds, Young Hunters, The Ploughboy) describe with a twofold enthusiasm, that of the impressionable boy and of the venerable man looking into the past, the joys of those early days in a strange land—the passionate response of his young heart to the beauty and fulness of life that confronted him at all seasons and all hours.

Having reached the age of fifteen or sixteen, the lad was visited by an ever-growing desire for knowledge. In spare minutes he studied mathematics, and read books borrowed of neighbors or purchased by his father. When the rest of the family had gone to bed, he lingered in the kitchen with a book and candle, endeavoring to read till the inevitable command issued from his father's room, and thought himself lucky in stealing "nearly ten minutes, magnificent golden blocks of time," two or three times in a whole winter. Finally he contrived to get permission to rise early, which he interpreted to mean one o'clock, so that he found himself master of five solid hours before the day's labor began. These hours he spent in inventing wooden machines—hygrometers, pyrometers, an "early-or-late-rising machine," a self-setting sawmill, a clock that indicated the day of the week and month and started fires. At the age of twenty-two he took the advice of a neighbor who proposed that he should display his inventions at the State Fair in Madison, as a means of admission to the wide world. Carrying "two clocks and a small thermometer made of a piece of old washboard, all three tied together" —a combination pronounced by one villager "a machine for taking the bones out of fish"—he boarded the locomotive of a train and soon found himself in Madison achieving a great renown at the fair. The sight of students in the little university town having keenly roused his appetite for education, he entered the University of Wisconsin, where, by means of money earned in the summers, he was able to spend four years in studying and in devising curious machines. The interruption in his education due to the emigration to America did not, in that day of solid achievement, prove to be a serious matter: "After an interruption of a dozen years, I began my Latin over again where I had left off; and, strange to say, most of it came back to me, especially the grammar which I had committed to memory at the Dunbar Grammar School."

The Mikado's Empire. By William Elliot Griffis, D.D., L.H.D. In two volumes. Twelfth edition, with eight supplementary chapters, including history to beginning of 1912. New York: Harper & Bros. $4 net.

The first appearance of this compendious work, in a single bulky volume, twenty-seven years ago, was welcomed by all who desired an interpretation of Japan. The writer had seen from the inside the marvellous reconstruction of a feudal state, which found itself called upon suddenly to adjust itself to modern requirements. For a time he lived in a daimio's castle in the interior, and then went up to the capital to serve on the faculty of the Imperial University. His close association with Dr. G. F. Verbeck, for some years Superintendent of Education at Tokio, was invaluable in giving him a statesmanlike view of the situation. Of Verbeck he makes a hero—"greatest in moral force of all the European foreigners who in any century came to Japan." Both believed in the Japanese, entertaining high ideas of what they were, and what they would surely accomplish. With some pardonable pride the author points to the fulfilment of the prognostications he made in the winter of 1903-4, just before the breaking out of the Russo-Japanese War: that no Russians would land in Japan except as prisoners; that a well-equipped army would be in the field across in Manchuria within one year; that Russia would meet disaster on the sea; and that the spirit of the Samurai would inspire the whole of the Japanese forces. The settled policy of the empire, from 1870 until the present, is rightly referred by Dr. Griffis to the momentous decision taken by a conclave of Japanese statesmen who met in Verbeck's house in July, 1870. Part of them were for trusting in the good-will of the nations of Europe, and for devoting the whole of the national resources to education and internal improvements. It was the advice of their Superintendent of Education, a Protestant missionary, to nourish no such hopes. "War is the history of mankind. . . . I advise you to fortify your coasts, to raise a national army, and give all classes the opportunity to participate in patriotism."

It is odd to have to lay the responsibility of the military policy of the Japanese Government in great measure on the shoulders of an American pastor of the Dutch Reformed Church. The reviewer remembers an address delivered by Verbeck before a Japanese audience in Tokio, in which he recommended Christianity for the empire. "Who but Christian nations can build great warships?" was one appeal that excited the astonishment of a critical auditor. Dr. Griffis holds that the future of Japan lies in the direction of commerce and industry, that her leaders have always realized this, and that the military phase is only due to her belief that without military strength and prestige commercial and industrial expansion is impossible.

Dr. Griffis has sought to keep his work up to date by adding successive chapters from time to time, as new editions appear. The time has come, however, when this new material should be woven into a consistent whole, with a single point of view. Awkward inconsistencies crop out. For instance, in supplementary chapter iv (p. 622) he states that "Frenchmen reorganized the army," while "the Germans have directed the higher medical education of the country." At page 702 he tells us that one of the first acts of the victors of the Yalu was to "send a telegram of gratitude to Meckel." This pupil of Von Moltke was their German instructor, and the incident points to the change of policy in the early eighties, when the military system came to be modelled in all its details, even to the uniforms, upon German methods.

The particular value of Dr. Griffis's book ceases, indeed, with the period of the seventies, when he was actually on the spot. In his résumé of the years from 1880 to 1890 he fails to notice the monetary crisis of 1882, when the flat paper currency fell to 80 per cent. discount, and national bankruptcy seemed imminent. The crisis was ably met, and four years later specie payments were resumed. Nor has he anything to say of the world-tour taken by Ito and his associates at this very time, to investigate the constitutions and parliamentary working of foreign governments. The tour resulted in an attack of what was facetiously termed "German measles." The Imperial University in Tokio was reorganized in 1886—absorbing Verbeck's University—when half of the foreign professors were brought out from Germany; only one American, the professor of law, remaining. This is left unnoticed. He fails to describe the intense anti-foreign movement of 1889-91, when there was an insistent call for revision of the treaties. The *soshi*, or political bravo, then asserted himself, a term Dr. Griffis uses later, incidentally, and without adequate interpretation. The map, facing page 17, is now out of date.

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He has nothing to say of Count Okuma in connection with the founding of Waseda University, nor of Fukuzawa's University, the Keiogijiku; and yet he refers to these men at some length, and also incidentally to "the universities of Tokio." This sin of omission is actually associated with blunders, when he speaks of "Dr. Divers, founder of the College of Engineering," at page 658, and at page 712 rightly credits Dr. Henry Dyer, author of "Dai Nippon: a Study in National Evolution," with its organization. Divers was the immediate successor of Dyer as its principal; it was merged in the greater University. There is also the misspelling of the names of Walter Dickson and H. W. Denison. The account of Yezo or Hokkaido, the northern island, is inadequate without mention of the coal mines of Poronai, which give their importance to the ports of Mororan and Otaru. There are three blunders in one line of page 653, which deals with the subject: "Hokodate (Hakodate), farther to the east (south), can hold a hundred (ocean-liners). Hotaru (Otaru) is the next port of importance."

But these blunders are few. More irritating, as detracting from the value of an admirable compendium, is the frequency of tawdry rhetoric, ill-balanced periods, and sentences that won't parse: *e. g.* (p. 608), "Then, in a long course of war, the soldiers, finding nearly permanent employment, keep sword, spear, and armor; while the farmers clinging to hoe and hook, two classes are formed out of the masses of inhabitants beyond the court and beneath the nobles."

King Edward in His True Colours. By Edward Legge. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $4 net.

The writer of this edifying book has sufficient discretion, taste, and skill with the brush to suffice him in his task of whitewashing a royal memory. Whatever can be effected by splashing with a thin material over a large surface is here effected. We begin with the assumption that King Edward, and more particularly Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, was a much underrated and even maligned person in his own day, and is still pictured by the world in false colors. The method is to rehearse the old charges—to build up, one by one, the ancient half-forgotten men of straw, and then to assault them in force. That the Prince was an idler, a spendthrift, a gambler, a person of common tastes and pleasures, is indignantly postulated and denied. For example, the writer rehearses in detail the circumstances of the Baccarat scandal—in detail, but, as always, without clearness. We get the impression that he is furiously indignant at a world capable of criticising a prince for the commission of a fault which cannot be denied. The odd workings of this commentator's mind may be indicated by a passage, from another chapter, alluding to this scandal:

> The "young man," as Bismarck always called William II, had taken it into his head to write a very impertinent letter to the Prince of Wales protesting against any one holding the position of a Colonel of Prussian Hussars embroiling himself in a gambling squabble, and playing with young men young enough to be his sons. The communication was very ill-advised on the part of the Kaiser, for, not only did it arouse the anger of his uncle, but it made Queen Victoria perfectly furious—the more so because she found it impossible to justify her son's association with "such people" as the defendants in the Tranby Croft case.

That the nephew's reprimand was ill-advised is clear enough; it was anything but impertinent, as Mr. Legge's own account of the incident sufficiently shows. The comment of the *Nation* at the time probably suggests as fair an apology as could or can be made for the Prince:

> Neither his education, nor his mental powers, nor his place in the British hierarchy offered him assistance in abandoning the life of "a man of pleasure" which the English political and social conditions imposed on him almost as soon as he reached his majority; in fact, the hereditary monarchy in England at present provides no serious pursuit for the heir to the throne.

That the Prince had from youth one grave and important study, in which he was sedulously coached, and for which he showed remarkable aptitude, is the chief serious contention of the present book. Here Mr. Legge takes violent issue with Sir Sidney Lee's memoir of King Edward in the Dictionary of National Biography. The judgment of the memoir that the King exercised no powerful diplomatic initiative, that he was not directly responsible for the successes in dealing with foreign Powers which marked his reign, becomes an object of staccato ridicule. Mr. Legge has more than the manner, and less than the logic, of a Scotch reviewer. The tributes to the King's diplomatic ability by such men as M. Poincaré, Comte d'Haussonville, and Professor Vambéry, here cited, are of interest. But which way are we of the twentieth century to look when we find our champion, after his prodigies of skill and valor, throwing up the sponge in this cheerful fashion?—

> But even if Edward VII were proved on oath to have been *"un esprit médiocre," "une grande capacité méconnue,"* "a statesman of the second class," a man who was "no reader of books," because "he could not concentrate his mind upon them," "a man who lacked the intelligent equipment of a thinker," a Prince who for years was not allowed to be initiated into State secrets because his mother feared he would divulge them "over country-house dinner-tables"; even if all these were sworn to on the Holy Book; even then, the millions who owe fealty to the British Crown and who have enshrined King Edward in their loyal hearts would say with the friend of the glorious Dead: "The legends woven by the People round their Sovereigns ought not to be destroyed."

Yet if there is anything (beyond the authority of the Dictionary of National Biography) which this book appears to be seeking to destroy, it is the body of legend woven by the people round Edward of Tranby Croft, of Paris, and of England!

The Mahā-vamsa, or Great Chronicle of Ceylon. Translated into English by Wilhelm Geiger, Ph.D., Professor of Indogermanic Philology at Erlangen University, assisted by Mabel Haynes Bode, Ph.D., Lecturer on Pali at University College, London: Pali Text Society; New York: Henry Frowde.

The Government of Ceylon could have selected no one to re-translate the Great Chronicle so well suited to the task as the eminent scholar who had just completed his edition of the text. It was indeed high time that a new translation should be made, since Turnour's translation dates back to 1837, and the Chronicle is of sufficient importance to be presented with an accuracy impossible to attain seventy years ago. Well-considered, too, was the resolution not to translate into verse the metrical original, but to keep to literal prose. As a work of literary excellence the Chronicle is negligible; as one of the few attempts of the Hindus (Ceylonese) to write history at all, it is worthy of an exact reproduction into English.

There has been no little discussion as to whether the Great Chronicle is really a trustworthy source of information. The facts appear to be these. About the close of the fourth century A. D. there existed a history of the island "from the beginning," that is, the history of the island as a settlement of Buddhists, the "beginning" reaching back to the sixth century in India. Originally it extended only to the arrival of the missionary who introduced Buddhism into Ceylon; but it was continued, as time went on, and a small Chronicle in Pali verse represents the first "clumsy redaction" of this history, afterwards extended and refined and known as the Mahāvamsa, which represents an intentional rearrangement of the small Chronicle, called the Dīpa-vamsa. The date of the Great Chronicle would be about the sixth century A. D.

As to the real value of the present work for historical students, opinions differ. Granting that the local statements may be correct, have we any reason for supposing that statements in a Ceylonese chronicle six hundred years

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after Christ are at all likely to illuminate the history of events six hundred years before Christ in India? Franke says no; Vincent Smith says it is very doubtful; Rhys Davids, however, declares that the Ceylon Chronicles are as trustworthy as the best of those of England or France, and Geiger, in his admirable introduction to the present work, shows that, after due allowance is made for the marvellous, the traditions recorded are supported in many instances by outside testimony, a fact which should, of course, serve to convert them into really historical material even when not so controlled. Thus the Ceylonese date of Buddha's death is 483 B. C., and apart from the Chronicle there are traces of a Ceylonese era dating from that year.

The Chronicle, apart from the history of the extension of the faith in Ceylon, which is its main content, is incidentally full of interesting and entertaining matter. As a history it starts with Buddha himself, gives an account of the Councils, the conversion of the world, the arrival in Ceylon of Mahinda (the miraculous way in which he arrived and propagated the religion being the subject of several cantos), and then recounts the story of wars and great deeds (the making of the relic-chamber, etc.), concluding with the history of groups of kings, arranged by dozens and disposed of somewhat summarily. As a store of general information, often given incidentally, it is perhaps even more valuable than as a formal history. Thus the contention that the Buddhists won their victories by wholly peaceful means receives a proper rebuff when it is told how a king slew thousands and was comforted with the thought, "They were heretics, to be esteemed as wild beasts." Another king cuts off the toes and noses of his victims (in India it is usually the ears and noses). One king thinks it would be amusing to pretend that his guard is king; so he instructs the court and soldiers to do all that the fellow commands, while he himself wanders disguised about the town. On his return the imitation king cries, "Seize this fellow; off with his head," and so one dynasty changes hands—or heads. Here, too, we learn that "gifts to the monks lengthen the giver's life," and much more that smacks of what is common in Hinduism, but is not often so plainly put in Buddhism. Here, too, the old Hindu Pantheon still keeps its grip on the imagination, if not on the faith of the people. The chief god is Brahman, and Indra and his angels are still apparently real, if subordinated to the new divinity of Buddha. The kings fight for glory of the doctrine and use deception to obtain holy ends, just as the sectarian Hindus did. The festivals, too, are quite in the old style; the feasting and dancing and music are thoroughly heretical in tone; even the decorated tree, once object of worship, is preserved and decked with ornaments, and offerings are made to it; much as the Christmas tree retains the flavor of its heathen origin. One example only can be given of the wit of this Great Chronicle: To test the wisdom of a man, the most wise one asked, "What name does this tree bear?" "This tree is called mango." "Is there another mango besides this?" "There are many mango-trees." "Are there other trees besides this mango and other mangoes?" "There are many trees, but those are trees that are not mangoes." "And are there, besides the other mangoes and those trees that are not mangoes, still other trees?" "Yes; there is this mango."

We have noticed only one error in the notes. On p. 144, Dhatarattha is given as the guardian of the East. It should be of the North.

Notes

Putnams publish this week "The Fringe of the Desert," a story by Rachel Swete Macnamara, and "Little Thank You," by Mrs. T. P. O'Connor.

Forthcoming books of John Lane Company include: "The Invincible Alliance," a volume of essays by Francis Grierson, and "Changing Russia," by Stephen Graham.

A combined German grammar and reader, "Deutsches Lern- und Lesebuch," by Prof. W. E. Mosher and Dr. Florence G. Jenney, is in the press of Heath.

In "The Book of Job," announced by Sherman, French & Company, Homer B. Sprague offers a new translation from the Hebrew, besides special studies of the work.

Upton Sinclair will publish shortly, through the John C. Winston Company, a new novel, entitled "Silvia." It deals with social problems.

John Stuart Thomson announces that his book, "China Revolutionized," will be out in a fortnight.

April 26 is the date set by Houghton Mifflin for the publication of the following titles: "Polly of Lady Gay Cottage," by Emma C. Dowd; "Gettysburg: Stories of the Red Harvest and the Aftermath," by Elsie Singmaster; "Brass Faces," a mystery story by Charles McEvoy; "The Value of Organized Speculation," by Harrison H. Brace; "A Naval History of the American Revolution," by Gardner W. Allen; "Strange Stories from the Lodge of Leisures," translated from the Chinese by George Soulié; "The Youth of Henry VIII," by Frank Mumby; "The Kindergarten," by Susan Blow, Patty Hill, and Elizabeth Harrison; "College Life," essays by Le Baron Russell Briggs, Riverside Literature series; "Riverside Seventh Reader," edited by James H. Van Sickle and Wilhelmina Seegmiller; "Preparing for Citizenship: An Elementary Textbook in Civics," by William Backus Guitteau; "The Second Book of Stories for the Story-Teller," by Fanny E. Coe; "New Ideals in Rural Schools," by George Herbert Betts, and "The Teaching of History," by Ernest C. Hartwell.

Winston Churchill's new novel, "The Inside of the Cup," will be ready in May. Macmillan is the publisher.

The same house has in hand "The Larger Aspects of Socialism," by William English Walling, and "With the Bulgarian Staff," by Noel Buxton.

With May begins a new English literary and artistic monthly, announced by Martin Secker. Middleton Murry will be the editor. On the literary side will be Gilbert Cannan, Frank Swinnerton, and Hugh Walpole; Albert Rothenstein will be art critic, and Edward J. Dent will attend to the music.

Prof. Arthur Livingston, of Columbia University, has in preparation for issue next year a translation of the Italian dialogues of Giordano Bruno, with selections from the Latin works.

In a letter to the London *Times*, Mr. Edmund Gosse contributes a note of some importance on Swinburne. It appears that for the past fifteen years critics of the poet, Mr. Gosse among them, have accepted as Swinburne's juvenilia a dozen pieces of verse contributed to *Fraser's Magazine* between March, 1849, and June, 1856, and signed "A. C. S." But these poems, it seems, are included in a volume of "Metrical Miscellanies" which has just turned up. It was printed for private circulation in 1854. "Curiously enough," says Mr. Gosse, "it was printed by Savill and Edwards, who printed some of Swinburne's early books. But we now know who the author was, and that he had nothing whatever to do with Algernon Charles Swinburne or with any of the Swinburne family."

A work on land forms, "Die erklärende Beschreibung der Landformen," by Prof. W. M. Davis, of Harvard, recently published in Leipzig, is the subject of the opening article in *Die Erde* for March 15. This is followed by an illustrated account by Prof. H. Pohlig of the famous mining district of Batopilas in Mexico.

The possibility of a war between Russia and Turkey for the possession of Armenia leads *Petermanns Mitteilungen* for February (just received) to furnish in its military department a strategic description of the frontier, with a valuable map, by the Prussian Gen. E. v. Hoffmeister. It is the result of personal observations made in 1910. Considering the preparations of the Russians, especially in the building of roads and establishing fortified posts, and the utter failure of the Turks to make similar defences, he is convinced that the Russian conquest is assured. Among the other subjects treated are the present condition of Antarctic research, as shown by the results of the last German and English expeditions, and the law which controls the concentration of population.

The "Annual Index" of the London *Times* for 1912, just issued, consists of 1,845 pages. Its value and usefulness as a chronicle of the leading events of the year cannot be overestimated. Fourteen pages, for instance, are devoted to aeronautic facts, thirty to the political, industrial, and financial history of this country, and thirty-six to the

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Balkan War. The record of the literary output of the year fills twenty-six pages.

We are glad to see that Henry Osborn Taylor's "Ancient Ideals," first published in 1896, justifies a second edition (Macmillan), as it is always pleasant to learn that a book of earnest and wide-reaching scholarship can hold its place in the stream of current publications. We are bound to add, however, that it is scarcely creditable in an edition advertised as "revised" to allow words and book titles in foreign languages to flaunt such indifference to the accepted rules of spelling and accent.

Three of Woodrow Wilson's essays have been reissued in a volume of the Riverside Press series (Houghton Mifflin). The essays are "Mere Literature," first published in the *Atlantic* in 1893; "The Author Himself," which had already appeared in the same magazine; and "On an Author's Choice of Company," published in the *Century* in 1896. The edition is limited to 550 copies. The book is a tall, thin octavo, printed on handmade paper, and bound uncut in dark paper boards, with cloth back and gold title—a fittingly handsome form.

The experiences related in Samuel G. Blythe's "The Making of a Newspaper Man" (Altemus) have been paralleled in the lives of many another of the craft. Unlike the usual narrative of newspaper failures and successes, this one has to do almost entirely with non-metropolitan journalism. For the most part, it is entertaining. Like one kind of romance, it stops when, at the age of thirty-two, the author "arrives."

In "Symbol and Satire in the French Revolution" (Putnam), Mr. E. F. Henderson has put into more permanent form a part of the interesting material which he has given at various times in the form of illustrated lectures. It is a valuable contribution to the study of the Revolution because it contains one hundred and seventy-one well-selected and well-printed plates reproducing the curious cartoons and engravings of an epoch unusually rich in symbolism and satire. Mr. Henderson's illustrations are almost all new and fresh. He has not even borrowed illustrations from the excellent volumes of Armand Dayot. On the contrary, most of his material has been photographed from the original prints in Paris. Some three hundred pages of text serve both as an outline sketch of events in France from 1789 to 1795, and as a running commentary upon the illustrations, interpreting the subtle or significant points in the cartoons.

There is nothing particularly thrilling in "The Romance of the Rothschilds" (Putnam). Certainly there are no sensational revelations, such as rumor led us to expect, calculated to embarrass the present representatives of the family. The tale told by Ignatius Balla is for the most part a plain, straightforward narrative, and if the original German was marked by any particular graces of style these certainly do not appear in the translation. The story of the family is remarkable enough: Maier Amschel, a humble Jew, living in the Ghetto of Frankfort, a man without even a surname (the patronymic Rothschild probably originated from the "red shield" which distinguished Maier's house), gradually built up a banking business in connection with the court of Hesse, and on his death-bed sent forth his five sons to carry on his enterprises in five great cities of the world, Frankfort, London, Paris, Vienna, and Naples, enjoining them strictly to conduct their affairs in common, to remain faithful to their religion, and to marry within their own family. These injunctions have been obeyed, so far as has been possible, by successive Rothschilds for close on a century, and the result of their united efforts is a fortune that can hardly be estimated in figures. The author does justice to the financial integrity as well as to the financial acumen of the Rothschilds, which enabled them, especially during the first half of the nineteenth century, to play so important a part in the history of Europe. Among the anecdotes given is one version of the disputed story of Nathan Rothschild's operations after Waterloo, and in the chapter on James Rothschild, of the Paris branch, are included some racy quotations from Heine which make good reading. One instance, not an isolated one, of carelessness is at the bottom of page 242, where "English" should probably be read for "German."

The last volume, just published in Richmond, Va., of the "Journals of the House of Burgesses of Virginia," embraces the period from March 19, 1702-3, to January 31, 1711-12, almost the whole of the reign of Queen Anne. In the history of Virginia it includes the latter part of Gov. Nicholson's term, the term of Gov. Nott, and the first part of the term of Gov. Spotswood, one of the best and ablest Governors Virginia ever had. There were four sessions of the Assembly of 1702-3—1705, one session of that of 1705-6, and two sessions of that of 1710-12. It is to be hoped that, when the publication of these volumes is completed, some one will condense the work into one volume. Gov. Nicholson is said to have made himself personally disagreeable to many leading men of the Colony by his autocratic and violent manners; he had the ambition to unite all the English colonies in America under one Governor-General. Gov. Nott, who came next, was not sufficiently supported by his predecessor's followers, and though he was tactful, his term of office was very brief, and he died soon after retiring. Of Gov. Spotswood the editor says that he "was possessed in the highest degree of courage, ability, energy, and persistency, and was by these qualities enabled to accomplish, despite his irascible and dictatorial temper, in the twelve years of his administration, more for the lasting good of the Colony probably than is to be credited to the account of any other Chief Executive of colonial Virginia." Gov. Spotswood suggested a postal system for the Colony, which was later adopted, helped to decide boundary disputes, erected forts, provided for the education of the Indians, improved the jails, etc. The proceedings of the session are described in Spotswood's Letters, Vol. I, Collection of the Virginia Historical Society, which furnish a commentary on the "Journals of the House of Burgesses," and are very useful for illustrating them.

"A Curtail'd Memoir of Incidents and Occurrences in the Life of John Surman Carden," written by himself in 1850 and now printed for the first time, with notes by C. T. Atkinson (The Clarendon Press), is a vivid, though somewhat ungrammatical and strangely spelled, narrative of a vigorous but comparatively little known English Admiral. Born with Irish blood of a Gretna Green marriage, he began a career in the English navy at seventeen on the India station. He was keenly interested in all that went on around him, and alive to a naval man's opportunities for observing men and things in many lands; his comments on India and later upon Egypt, when he assisted at the removal of the remnants of Napoleon's ill-fated expedition, are not always absolutely accurate from the point of view of zoölogy and archæology, but are full of interest. Returning to England in 1793, he shared in Lord Howe's victory in the Battle of the First of June, of which he gives a narrative, simple but vivid with falling masts and flying pieces of human bodies. In the War of 1812, in command of the Macedonian, he valiantly gave chase to Decatur in the United States, but when he overhauled him, found to his sorrow that the American was a ship of 1,578 tons, 58 guns, and 478 men, as against his own vessel of only 1,080 tons, 46 guns, and 259 men. He made a gallant fight, but finally had to strike his flag to the superior force. This misfortune virtually closed his active career, though he lived for nearly half a century longer. His description of this battle brings out some points not noticed by Capt. Mahan or Col. Roosevelt, or by the naval historian James. Mr. Atkinson thinks that Mr. Roosevelt, relying on the untrustworthy narrative of Leech, who had served in the Macedonian and then deserted to the American service, is unjust in representing Carden as a "merciless disciplinarian," guilty of an "unsparing use of the lash." One noteworthy fact, often overlooked in connection with the War of 1812, is the large percentage of British men in American vessels who had been splendidly trained as British seamen. Carden states this as one of the causes of his defeat, and says many of the crew of the Macedonian were recognized as old messmates by the crew of the United States. One of the English crew even found his own brother among the crew of the enemy, but when urged by that brother to enter the American service, replied, according to the English tradition, "If you are a d——d rascal, that's no reason I should be one."

The State of Wisconsin has several agencies, all under the able management of Dr. Reuben G. Thwaites, through which historical investigation may be pursued. One of these, the Wisconsin History Commission, established in 1905, has just published two more volumes on the period of the Civil War. The "Civil War Messages and Proclamations of Wisconsin War Governors" contains only selected passages from the documents, and furnishes a valuable contemporary picture of the activities of the State Executive for the maintenance of the war. The second volume, "A Narrative of Service with the Third Wisconsin Infantry," is the narrative of the experiences of Major Julian Wisner Hinkley, of the Army of the Potomac, and later with the Army of the Cumberland. Historians may be somewhat suspicious about the trustworthiness of this account, for the History Commission has amalgamated the narrative from a manuscript diary, several contemporary letters, and a manuscript narrative

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written by Major Hinkley several years after the war, without indicating the source of the particular statements, although the final form has been submitted to the ostensible author for his approval. The narrative in its modern form is readable, but the publication of the originals would have been more acceptable to historians.

From 1795 to 1912 is the period covered by Dr. Kemp P. Battle in his "History of the University of North Carolina," the second and final volume of which has just been published at Raleigh, N. C. Besides having prepared exhaustive reference lists for the alumni, he has told in the form of a series of short biographies almost the whole story of the "Old North State." A characteristic of the book is its continuous personal note. Probably no other North Carolinian has first-hand knowledge of so many fellow Tar Heels as Dr. Battle, of whom it is said that he remembers every student who attended the university while he was its president, and nearly all who have been there since he laid down the reins to become professor of history twenty years ago.

Smith's Bible Dictionary, in the original four volumes and in the later one-volume abridgment, was one of the best-known aids to Bible study a generation ago. "The International Bible Dictionary" (John C. Winston Company), edited by Rev. F. N. Peloubet, assisted by Alice D. Adams, is based upon Smith, and purports to embody "the most recent and accepted research." This claim is not justified. There are frequent references to archæological discoveries, many interesting reproductions of photographs of present scenes in Palestine and other lands mentioned in the Bible, but the established results of historical study of the Biblical documents are either ignored or dismissed as unimportant. As a work of reference, therefore, this dictionary is misleading, although as a repository of names of persons and places mentioned in the Bible, with full Scripture references, it will be found useful. The work is of convenient size, low in price, but the paper is heavy.

To the spirit tired to death of the "very latest" and the "most efficient," few things are more restful than a big tome with a Latin name. And when the volume is a brand new one, dealing with the vocabulary of a great master of modern literature, and is, furthermore, a product of our finest American scholarship, restfulness is tempered with pleasurable excitement. Our tariff laws may have caused us much vexation, but they have at least, by their discrimination against books printed in English, procured for our eyes the delight of such a title-page as this: "Dantis Alagherii Operum Latinorum Concordantiæ. Curante Societate Dantea quæ est Cantabrigiæ in Nova Anglia ediderunt Eduardus Kennard Rand et Ernestus Hatch Wilkins quos adiuuit Alanus Campbell White." The handsome volume is issued "Oxonii e Prelo Clarendoniano," and, as intending purchasers may be glad to know, may be had "Londini et Novi Eboraci apud Henricum Frowde." A dedication to Charles Eliot Norton, in elegant elegiacs, is followed by a modest "Præfatio," in which the plan of the work is briefly expounded in connection with an enumeration of the very slight deviations from the Oxford text. For this Concordance, like its immediate predecessor, is based on Moore's "Tutte le Opere di Dante Alighieri," although the compilers have accepted Rajna's corrections in "De Vulgari Eloquentia," Shadwell's in the "Quæstio de Aqua et Terra," Albini's in the Eclogues, and, as far as that *libello* came under consideration at all, Barbi's revision of the "Vita Nuova." Boffito's tentative edition of the tenth Epistle has not been utilized, nor, it should seem, Bertoni's emendations in the third. For the Letters and the "Monarchia," then, Moore's text has been followed absolutely, barring four corrections made by Dr. Moore himself and a few changes in punctuation. A much fuller exposition of principles and methods is to be found in Vol. XXIX of the "Annual Report of the Dante Society."

The Concordance includes not only the Latin vocabulary of Dante's Latin works, but also the Italian words cited in these same writings, and the Latin words occurring in his Italian prose and verse. The Italian side-heads are printed in italics. The quotations are long enough to show how the word is used. In this volume there is, of course, no division of the page between prose and poetry, such as was found expedient in Professor Sheldon's. The arrangement is intelligently conceived and consistently followed, and the print is clear and correct. A creditably short list of "Corrigenda" occupies p. 577, at the end of the volume. In preparing this work, as well as the Concordance of the minor Italian writings, two unsurmountable difficulties had to be faced: the bad condition of much of the text, and the uncertain authenticity of several of the parts. The only thing to do was to keep to one established edition; and this course has been pursued in both cases. The present work may, indeed, contribute as good evidence as any yet brought to bear on the vexed problem of the genuineness of "De Aqua et Terra" and the tenth Epistle. A survey by Professor Rand in the above-mentioned "Report of the Dante Society" shows that the linguistic usage of these two treatises is closely akin to that of Dante's unquestioned Latin prose; it offers also some indication of the probable chronological sequence of his principal Latin compositions. This publication brings to a close the admirable series of Dante Concordances begun by Fay and continued by Sheldon and White. It adds a new and notable achievement to the already proud record of the American Dante Society, in which Norton was so long the central figure; and it will win for its authors the everlasting gratitude of all lovers of the "altissimo poeta." *Benedicti in æternum Eduardus Kennard Rand et Ernestus Hatch Wilkins nec non Alanus Campbell White!*

John Brooks Henderson, ex-United States Senator from Missouri, who drafted the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, abolishing slavery, died on Saturday in Washington. He was born in Pittsylvania County, Virginia, in 1826. One book bears his name, "State Banking and Railroad Laws," written early in his life.

Prof. John Westlake, for twenty years professor of international law in the University of Cambridge, is dead in London. He was born in Cornwall in 1828 and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. At one time he represented the Romford Division, Essex, in Parliament, and was a member of the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague. Professor Westlake's writings include: "A Treatise on Private International Law, or The Conflict of Laws," which went through several editions; "Chapters on the Principles of International Law," "International Law, Peace," and "International Law, War." He was decorated with the order of Commendatore of the Iron Crown, Italy, and with the Japanese Order of the Rising Sun.

Science

Starving America. By Alfred W. McCann. New York: George H. Doran. $1.50 net.

With the exception of Dr. Wiley, no one has done more valiant service than Mr. McCann in behalf of the cause of pure and wholesome food. For a time he worked with that great chemist and reformer at a task for which previous experience had fitted him. As advertising manager of a large food industry he had come into daily contact for five years with food inspectors, chemists connected with the national and State departments, manufacturers, importers, jobbers, and commission men, thus enjoying opportunities for glimpses behind the scenes such as come to few. His book is the outcome of this specialized knowledge of food conditions. What struck him particularly was the insufficient attention given to the mineral ingredients of our daily rations. Dieticians were dividing foods into four groups: carbohydrates, proteins, fats, and "ash." The division of "ash," he remarks, was always exasperatingly ignored when he tried to get information regarding it. It "apparently had little if any meaning for the dietician, and was not considered by him as significant or important." Gradually he learned that a diet of pure carbohydrates, pure proteins, and pure fat would not support life unless a sufficient amount of ash, that is, mineral salts, was also supplied.

"Starving America" is the result of his investigations and experiments along this line. According to the official figures, as many as 235,262 children under ten years of age died in the United States in 1910; this forces on him the conclusion that, "as a nation, we have been busier building tunnels, subways, railroads, skyscrapers, bridges, air-craft, and Atlantic liners, and living in luxury, than in developing healthy, normal bodies." The 270 pages of Mr. McCann's book are concerned mostly with the attempt to prove that this premature loss of life is due chiefly to the use of foods from which the mineral ingredients necessary to sustain health have been removed by ignorant or greedy manufacturers, with the result that in the midst of abundance, we are actually starving

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—stunting bodies and minds and shortening life. Our Government wisely prohibits the exportation of our limited supply of phosphate rock, because a soil without phosphates produces scant or dwarfed crops. But the food manufacturers are allowed with impunity to remove any or all of the sixteen minerals our bodies need, in common with animals and with the farmer's soil. Wheat, barley, oats, rice, corn, are robbed by millers and breadmakers who "do not know the trail of wreckage which they have left in the wake of their mineral contempt." Barnyard fowl thrive if fed on rice alone, provided it be rice from which none of the mineral salts have been removed; but if fed on the polished and talcum-coated grain of commerce they die. Mr. McCann describes (pp. 69-75) experiments on men made in Oriental countries which proved that the disease called beri-beri is caused by eating demineralized rice. Yet such rice is the only kind on sale in our markets. Sometimes the veneer of glucose and talc is left off, in order that the rice may be sold as "unpolished"; but while this is an improvement, it is not what we need, for the minerals are still removed by the millers.

Physicians cannot supplement the lacking minerals in our cereal food by giving them as medicines. A rational diet of foods rich in organic compounds of phosphorus, such as peas, beans, wheat bran, barley polishings, and corn phytin (which is removed in milling), when added to the demineralized foodstuffs, would improve matters; but we usually throw away the liquid in which vegetables rich in minerals have been cooked, so that starvation is not averted. Our meats also are too often demineralized, and we throw away the bones or feed them to the animals, although we know that our dogs, if they get no bones, have decayed teeth and the rough coat of ill health.

Such is the principal message of Mr. McCann's book, delivered in a rambling way and without much literary art, and yet impressive by the weight of facts that bear out his reasoning. He also has pages on the treatment of experts and reformers, like Wiley and Cassidy, and on the adulterations which—in addition to the demineralizing—go on unchecked in spite of pure food laws, which seem to have been made in favor of manufacturers rather than consumers. No farmer who raises animals for market would dream of mixing with their feed coal tar dyes, benzoate of soda, sulphurous acid, and diverse other chemical preservatives which the law allows any one who chooses to put into food made for women and men, children and invalids.

It is interesting to note what remedy for this state of affairs the author suggests. Most of the conditions described in his book being unknown to our legislative bodies, he thinks it will be a long time before Congress can be educated to act as it should. In the meantime he declares that the reform work may be done in schools by teaching the boys and girls in the chemistry classes to analyze foods and to know the danger to health of eating those that are adulterated and denatured, following the method of Professor Allyn, of the Massachusetts State Normal School. In his preface, Mr. McCann expresses a doubt whether manufacturers can do much in the way of educating the public how to choose wisely in buying foods. In this he is mistaken. Some of the large manufacturers have been much helped by their advertisements declaring that they use no chemical preservatives and dyes. In a chapter entitled An Ideal Restaurant, our author himself cleverly points out ways by which caterers could help themselves by taking patrons into their confidence and disclaiming the use of various ingredients by which consumers are elsewhere deceived and injured.

An undertaking in the "Who's Who" field, which serves a useful purpose, is "Who's Who in Science" (Macmillan). Its scope is international and its tabulated information, over and above the biographical directory of scientific men, is compendious and convenient. The edition for 1913 is nearly twice as large as that for 1912, the new space being partly accounted for by the addition of a section on the scientific societies of the world, partly by the inclusion of psychology and geography among the sciences represented in the work, but doubtless mainly by greater completeness in the body of the book. With a view to supplying any omissions that may still remain, a "recommendation form" is given. The value of the book would be considerably increased if, in the case of the more eminent of those who, upon application for biographical data, fail to respond, the information desired were obtained otherwise; though apparently the failure to do so is attributable to an honorable motive, the desire not to appropriate matter obtained by the compilers of other works of reference. The result is that a large proportion of the greatest scientific men outside the English-speaking world are represented by only the briefest possible notice. The policy of translating into English the titles of all books and papers, and the names of all institutions, we regard as unfortunate. But the whole work has evidently been executed with care and conscientiousness.

Library catalogues as a rule are not read with great eagerness. They belong rather to the books which a certain German teacher of medicine, long since gone to the realms where disease is unknown, used to recommend to his students as potentially useful in the treatment of insomnia; his list also included city directories and works on philosophy. Be that as it may, the last volume of the "Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army" (Vol. XVII of the Second Series) certainly contains some very interesting matter. It ranges from Suaheli, in eastern Africa, to Testut, a contemporary French anatomist of distinction, taking in Surgery, Syphilis, Teeth, Tapeworms, and many other topics. As an introduction we have a tabulation of the additions to the medical periodicals to be found in the library. Among them are the titles of forty journals which have come into existence since the publication of the previous volume of the catalogue; of these the number credited to Italy is ten, a most surprising development. The intelligent general reader who happens to long for special information may be glad to know that there is a journal of very recent origin on each of these subjects: Malaria, Radium, Tumors, Chemotherapy, Vaccine Therapy, Neuropathy, Pathopsychology, Social Diseases, School Child, School Hygiene.

Further on in the volume, ninety pages, above one-ninth of the entire book, are devoted to a most attractive list of "Texts illustrating the History of Medicine," which with a few changes were well worthy of republication as a separate booklet. It is not quite clear on what principle the selection has been made, but it seems to be the outcome of an effort to bring together for nine different "periods" (Pre-Hippocratic, Greek, and Græco-Roman, Byzantine, and so on to the Modern Period of the Nineteenth Century and beyond) the fundamental books and articles in periodicals which may be read in the library of the Surgeon-General in Washington. In most of the periods there is a further grouping according to certain general divisions of medicine. Modern editions of old writers and translations are mentioned only in a few cases. The arrangement is frequently somewhat confusing, and it is often necessary to hunt further than the abundant cross references suggest. These are of course matters about which uniformity is almost impossible, and some kind of abbreviated reduplication becomes unavoidable. Full as the list is, some titles are lacking which in importance are comparable with those that are given. Quite apart from these omissions, concerning which the vision of the specialists may be perverted, it is at least regrettable that the section on modern medical bibliography, which does contain the Index-Catalogue, does not include the Index Medicus, the new English catalogues, and those of the Concilium Bibliographicum at Zürich so far as they touch subjects included in these lists. Another omission is very striking, and to some may seem much more serious. We have not been able to hit upon any reference to the records of that system of hygiene which is among the oldest known. We are forced to the conclusion that the new administration should at once furnish the Surgeon-General's Library with a copy of the Bible or at least of the Old Testament.

No human invention has rendered greater service on the sea than radio-telegraphy; and recent progress has so extended its grasp that there are few ocean areas where a vessel with proper equipment is beyond the reach of wireless signal. With the first of July a system of international time distribution will be in force, which will greatly enhance the accuracy of navigation and put all sailors on a virtual equality with landsmen; for, instead of forecasting the weather from their own isolated ob-

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servations, they will be able to make a far more accurate judgment by deduction from radio-telegraphic data. About ten wireless towers of long range come within the scope of international convention, of which the Eiffel tower was the first to transmit information of immediate use on sea. Each transmitting station will send out a general description of the air movements over a wide area, and with particular reference to wind velocities in storms of violence. Barometric pressure and the state of the sea also are within the scope of the compactly coded messages. Not less significant are the time signals which the Paris convention spent much effort in elaborating, with agreement as to hours of sending whereby there should be no interference. Virtually no hour of day or night will be without a signal whereby the ships' chronometers can be corrected with precision of a high order.

With the anniversary, April 15, of the loss of the Titanic, interest in the drift of ice in the North Atlantic is revived. The year has been fertile in suggestion as to reasons why the fatal berg was not earlier seen, but nothing has developed that would very much help a ship speeding through known ice-fields at twenty knots. Still, with the obvious improvement in naval architecture whereby every closed bulkhead becomes a compressed air caisson, capable of being entered and repaired in case of accident, it is contended that ships can now be built unsinkable in virtually every type of emergency. Ice has, indeed, made its appearance off the Banks, as shown on the April "Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic," just issued conjointly by the Hydrographic Office and the Weather Bureau of the Government. There are already icebergs and field ice to the east and southeast of Cape Race, though not so far south as to fall within the area of the shifted transatlantic lanes. Present indications place them, however, within the region of highly prevalent fogs, through which even the keenest lookout would be unavailing, unless there were marked reduction of speed.

One of the greatest zoölogical wonders of the world and also, alas! a vanished race, the passenger pigeon, is described in *Bird-Lore* for March-April. Much of the information given is drawn from old records dating back as early as 1672. The size of the flocks only fifty years ago is almost incredible. An observer in the Mississippi Valley saw during five hours huge migrating flocks at intervals of a few minutes, the whole amounting to some 600,000,000 birds. In swiftness of flight, a mile a minute, they outstripped every bird of their size. So complete has been their destruction, chiefly by man, that only one, a captive in Cincinnati, is known to exist. The school department shows an increasing interest in bird-study on the part of teachers and children. The Educational Leaflets describe the emperor goose and the crested auklet. Each of the articles is illustrated with reproductions of photographs, three in color.

Addison Brown, for twenty years Judge of the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York State, who died last week, aged eighty-three, had long been interested in astronomy and botany. His observations on the corona in the solar eclipse of 1878 were published by the Smithsonian Institution, as well as his address in 1891 before the New York Scientific Alliance on the "Need of Endowments for Scientific Research and Publication." He was a friend of Dr. Asa Gray, had long been a contributor to the collections and work of the botanical department at Harvard, and from 1890 to 1902 was president of the Torrey Botanical Club of New York. In the years 1896 to 1898, he published, in conjunction with Dr. N. L. Britton, Britton and Brown's "Illustrated Flora of the United States and Canada," in three volumes, with 4,200 cuts. He had completed a revision of this work just before his death. In 1902 he received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard, from which college he had graduated in 1852, a classmate of Joseph H. Choate.

Drama and Music

Irish Plays and Playwrights: By Cornelius Weygandt. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2 net.

All persons desiring to know something of the work of the so-called Celtic Renaissance will find this volume both useful and interesting. Mr. Weygandt possesses at least one excellent qualification for the task he has undertaken, an intimate acquaintance with the facts. He has not only been an enthusiastic student of the subject himself, but has been aided in his researches by many of the men and women active in the movement. The consequence is that his record of the origin and development of the Irish National Theatre Society—better known, perhaps, as the Abbey Theatre Company—is uncommonly full and precise. His critical comments are less trustworthy, because, with all their occasional acuteness in the comparison of literary or dramatic excellence, they are, as a rule, written in a vein of enthusiastic eulogy, altogether incompatible with judicious discrimination. Nearly all his geese are swans.

Of the Abbey Theatre itself, of course, he has not much to tell that is absolutely new, but his description of one of its earliest rehearsals, with half-a-dozen enthusiastic but totally inexperienced amateurs in the poorest and roughest of halls, furnishes an object-lesson to those who believe that an elaborate and learned organization is a necessary preliminary to the establishment of a national theatre. It is true that W. G. Fay and his associates, after they had made their start, did receive substantial aid from Miss Horniman for some years, but it is sufficiently plain that the enterprise succeeded mainly because of the zeal behind it and its direct racial appeal. That it has now assumed the form of a permanent and essentially national institution can scarcely be doubted, although the acting capacity of the company must be enlarged before it can discharge the highest functions of the artistic theatre. At present it is only in the realistic folk drama, and not always in that if a tragic note be called for, that the present players meet every artistic requirement. To imaginative situations they exhibit a strange insensibility. The suggestion—quoted by Mr. Weygandt from Mr. Yeats—that this seeming unresponsiveness to emotion is a sort of classic repose, the result of Mr. Fay's having seen Bernhardt and De Max in "Phèdre" at the Français, is fantastic. In any case, nothing could be more absurd than any attempt to apply the French rules of traditional classic gesture to the interpretation of Irish peasant drama or romance. The simple truth is that the Irish Players have been trained as yet in one style of acting only. In that they are remarkably efficient, and it is worth noting that from the first their instructors have been most insistent upon their faithful observance of the characteristic rhythm of peasant speech and upon a resolute avoidance of exaggeration. These are admirable rules in themselves, particularly when a special end is in view, but on the stage they are not of universal application.

Much of Mr. Weygandt's space is given to biographies of the Irish dramatists—Yeats, Synge, Martyn, Lady Gregory, and others of lesser note—with synopses of many of their plays. This review is well done, constituting a compact and convenient summary. The bulk of the work produced during the dozen years or so that the Abbey Theatre and its kindred societies have been in existence, is remarkable, and the quality of much of it most encouraging for the future, if not quite so precious in its entirety as Mr. Weygandt pronounces it to be. With his general estimate of the product of Yeats and Synge few readers will disagree. As might be expected, he professes a somewhat contemptuous opinion for those who fail to recognize in "The Playboy of the Western World" a perfect masterpiece, but the force of his argument is weakened by his admission that irony, grotesqueness, and extravagance are prominent characteristics of Synge's genius. These, of course, are just the features which invalidate the legitimacy of "The Playboy" even as satirical comedy. One of the most interesting, and most truly critical, chapters in the book is the last, on William Sharp, in which he refuses to entertain the notion of any dual personality in his case, arguing that his talent was essentially imitative, that his assumption of the alias of Fiona Macleod was—though he puts it somewhat less bluntly—a deliberate commercial trick, to attract attention to a style of composition in which he was proficient; and that while using it he constantly betrayed himself, to careful read-

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ers, by writing from his own male point of view.

"Plays of Old Japan (The Nō)," by Dr. Marie Stopes, with a colored frontispiece and other illustrations from Japanese woodcuts, is announced by Heinemann, London. The plays were mostly written in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Included in the volume will be translations of four of the plays, made by the author and Prof. Joji Sakurai, of Tokio.

By arrangement with the heirs of Henry W. Longfellow and the publishers of Longfellow's "Evangeline," Arthur Hopkins announces that he will produce next season in New York a stage version of the poem. The dramatization, made by Thomas W. Broadhurst, has been approved by the Longfellow family, and will be interpreted by a cast of seventy-five persons, headed by Edna Goodrich. The scenes will portray four stages of Evangeline's life in Acadia and seven stages of her wanderings. Incidental music, both orchestral and choral, has been composed by William Furst.

Annie Russell's Old English Comedy Company, which has been visiting the principal Eastern cities since the end of its New York engagement, will close its first season in Montreal the first of June. Miss Russell has ambitious plans for next season. The first week in August her Comedy Company starts on a transcontinental tour, which will include the principal cities of the United States and Canada not visited this season. Returning East soon after the Christmas holidays, Miss Russell will prepare for her second New York engagement, when she will offer, besides "She Stoops to Conquer," "The Rivals," and "Much Ado About Nothing," several revivals, including Knowles's "The Love Chase" and Sheridan's "The School for Scandal."

Messrs. Vedrenne and Eadie are to give a series of special matinée performances at the London Royalty Theatre. The first of these will occur on the 22d inst., when an original one-act play by Rudyard Kipling, called "The Harbor Watch," will be given, in connection with a posthumous comedy by St. John Hankin, called "Thompson," which has been finished by George Calderon. Of Kipling's piece little is known, but it is said to be thoroughly characteristic of its author, and to deal with soldiers and sailors.

The plans of Ethel Irving at the London Globe Theatre include a revival of Somerset Maugham's "Lady Frederick," and the production of a new English version of "La Tosca" as well as of "Years of Discretion."

The third number of the *Manchester Playgoer* opens with a lively paper on Mr. Gordon Craig and the Universe, by John Palmer, which is characterized by a vigor and common sense not always observable in the utterances of the professors of advanced theatrical ideas. There is truth, also, in an article on "The Dramatic Artist," by Philip Carr, who writes:

This intellectual invasion of the theatre is a healthy thing. It is bracing, it is cleansing, it has activity. One might say it has life, and from the side of the intelligence, it has life. But for all its cleverness, it misses out something which is a part of life, and that is, perhaps, why it does not attain to a complete expression in art. In its anxiety to avoid sentimentality, it leaves out sentiment, and sentiment is a part of life. In its anxiety to be novel, it forgets simplicity, and simplicity is not only the most vital thing in life, but the most eloquent and enduring thing in art.

H. B. Irving sends word to England that he has produced Stephen Phillips's poetic play, "The Sin of David," in Johannesburg with great success. He promises to present it in London next winter, during his engagement at the London Savoy.

"Playgoers" is the name of a one-act piece by Sir A. W. Pinero which has just been produced in the London St. James's Theatre. It tells of the experience of a philanthropic young married couple who tried to make their servants more contented with their lot by sending them to see plays of a thoughtful and inspiring character. The result is that they succeed only in offending every one of them, so that they all give notice except the odd man. The skit is said to be very amusing. Presumably it has a satirical import. Sir Arthur, in writing it, probably had in mind the troubles of a dramatist who is desirous of pleasing all his critics.

At Pozsony (Pressburg), the ancient capital of Hungary, a memorial service was held on the 15th of March in honor of the late Francis Korbay. Liszt's Mass was sung at the Cathedral, which was crowded to the doors. At the close of the Mass the Hungarian National Hymn was sung amid a scene of great emotion, most of the congregation being in tears.

The Boston Symphony Orchestra ends its thirty-second season in Boston on Saturday evening, May 3, and will begin the thirty-third season in Boston on Friday afternoon, October 10. In this season just drawing to a close it has given one hundred and nine concerts, with two additional concerts in aid of its pension fund. The season has been altogether the most prosperous the organization has ever had. The return of Dr. Muck has restored it to all its old-time brilliancy. The illness of Dr. Muck, which incapacitated him for several weeks, brought into prominence its new assistant conductor, Otto Urack, whose work met with most gratifying success. In the season of 1913-14, the Boston Symphony Orchestra will give one hundred and ten concerts.

Saint-Saëns, the oldest as well as the greatest of French composers and writers on musical topics, is out with a new oratorio and a new book. The oratorio is "The Promised Land," based on a libretto by Hermann Klein. It will have its first performance next September at a music festival in Gloucester, Eng. The book is entitled "Ecole Buissonnière" (Pierre Lafitte & Cie.), and is made up of articles which first appeared in the *Echo de Paris*. It includes sketches of Pauline Viardot, Delsarte, Rossini, Massenet, Meyerbeer, Offenbach; articles on diverse artistic and church questions, and scientific fantasias.

Least known of Liszt's works are those for the organ, yet Saint-Saëns goes so far as to call his fantasia on the choral from "Le Prophète" the most extraordinary composition in the literature of that instrument:

It lasts forty minutes, and the interest does not flag for a moment. As Mozart in his Fantaisie and Sonata in C minor anticipated the modern piano, Liszt writing this Fantaisie more than a half-century ago seems to have foreseen the instrument we now possess with its thousand resources.

When Verdi died he left a large sum for building a home for superannuated, indigent musicians. Once a year the inmates give a concert in memory of their benefactor. This year special pains were taken because it marked the Verdi centenary. There was a chorus of twenty-two former soloists, and arias from Verdi's operas were sung, one of them by a baritone of sixty-eight, another by a soprano of eighty-one. The critics were not invited.

When an opera is really successful in Paris it is likely to be given at least a hundred times the first season. How far Debussy's "Pelléas et Mélisande" has been from such success is shown by the fact that it required eleven years to reach its hundredth repetition. Nevertheless, the event was celebrated by a supper at which Paul Dukas, Xavier Leroux, Jean Périer, and other prominent musicians were present, besides the composer and his wife.

It was expected that either Pohlig or Wetzler would be appointed as Paur's successor as conductor of the Royal Opera in Berlin; but the post has been given to Robert Langs, of Essen.

Dora Duty Jones died a day after the publication of her excellent book, "Lyric Diction." Her first book, "The Technique of Speech," has for its theme vowel resonance. She held that "resonance, being the only quality characteristic of the voice in both speaking and singing, is the only natural link between speech and song." Her method is based on her discovery "of a definite point of control in the muscular action of the tongue, from which the movements of that organ may be directed easily and naturally through the sense of touch." After teaching lyric diction in New York for some years, she went to Europe, teaching successively in Florence, Berlin, and London.

Art

NEW WORKS OF RAPHAEL'S.

ROME, April 4.

Commendatore Adolfo Venturi has just announced at the University of Rome a most important discovery, which sheds light on many unexplained phases of the early work of Raphael, and in particular on the character of his relations with Perugino.

Down to the middle of the nineteenth century, critics were accustomed to suppose that Raphael's education was derived altogether from Perugino. Giovanni Morelli, however, pointed out conclusively how much Raphael's forms reflected the influence of Timoteo della Vite. Lately, a third possible master has been found in Evangelista Pian di Meleto, mentioned in documents as the assistant of Raphael's father, Giovanni Santi. According to the document published by Magherini-Graziana, Evangelista painted in 1500-1501 the Coronation of S. Niccolà da Tolentino for the Church of S. Agostino, at Città di Cas-

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tello, in collaboration with the youthful Raphael. Three known fragments of this ancona, an angel now in the gallery at Brescia, the Eternal Father, and the Virgin in the Naples Gallery, appear to be altogether the work of Raphael, and it is probable that the name of Evangelista Pian di Meleto may have been introduced into the document on account of Raphael's extreme youth. So poor an artist could hardly have done more than guide the first steps of the greater genius. The lasting influence which Raphael received from Urbino came from the favorite pupil of Francesco Francia, Timoteo della Vite, who had just returned to Urbino, young and successful, bringing with him the new and more developed forms of the Bolognese School.

At this period, the greatest painter of Umbria was Pietro Perugino. Raphael's father had already felt his influence, and Raphael must have become familiar at an early age with the great anconas of Sinigaglia and Fano, because at a later time he reproduced the motives of the predella of the Fano picture.

The Stanza dell' Udienza del Cambio in Perugia is generally believed to have been painted by Perugino in the year 1500, by reason of the date in the inscription under the master's own portrait. The two lunettes on the wall at the left of the entrance representing the Heroes of Antiquity, and the decoration of the vault, show Perugino's forms of this period; but there is much reason for supposing that the Transfiguration and Nativity on the back wall, and the Prophets and Sibyls on the right, were painted at a later date. The series of subjects represented on the various walls lack unity; for we have first two panels representing the Heroes of Antiquity, then the Transfiguration and Nativity, and finally the Sibyls and Prophets. Having treated the Heroes according to the request of the Corporation of the Cambio, Perugino, on continuing the work after a lapse of time, might naturally have returned to his more accustomed Biblical subjects. The figures themselves of the Transfiguration and Nativity are modelled with stronger chiaroscuro, exhibit more rounded types, and in every way suggest a later date than those of the first two panels. There is also evidence that the last payment for the Cambio frescoes was not made until 1507. Professor Venturi therefore believes that the entire series was not completed before 1506.

In the lunette on the right wall, representing the Prophets and Sibyls, the composition is as unlike as possible to the Heroes of Antiquity. In the former fresco the figures are arranged in a horizontal row, in which each figure is unrelated to its neighbor, and they repeat the overworked types of Perugino's earlier and grander compositions. On the other hand, in the Prophets and Sibyls we find a closely knit and balanced arrangement in which each figure plays its part in the total composition.

In comparing the figures of this panel with those of all the others, we find in the Prophets and Sibyls an overwhelming superiority in drawing, force of chiaroscuro, and power of expression. The noble Eternal Father has no parallel in the old men among the Heroes, and the dominating heads of the David and Solomon make the earlier forms of Perugino seem to be of pasteboard. On the other hand, the Sibyls reflect Leonardo and Timoteo della Vite. These nervous, sensitive heads and rhythmical bodies have nothing in common with the spiritless, oft-repeated types found in all Perugino's work of this period. The landscape, too, with its higher horizon and colder cliffs, bears little resemblance to those of Perugino, but rather recalls the landscapes of Timoteo della Vite and Giovanni Santi.

We find, then, in this fresco a genius much more profound than Perugino, and a painter who, while reflecting the forms of the Urbino School and Timoteo della Vite, and influenced by Leonardo, nevertheless seeks to bring to life the deeper feeling of the Perugino of the Sistine Chapel in forms of the beginning of the sixteenth century, and with a force which bears him to heights which Perugino never approached. In this fresh genius Professor Venturi has discovered the forms of the youthful Raphael. It is Raphael after he has painted the Sposalizio of the Brera, has worked in Florence, and has been inspired by Leonardo's Battle of Anghiari and Michelangelo's cartoons for the Signoria.

In the Uffizi is a drawing for the Moses of the Sala del Cambio also given to Perugino; and here again is a force of chiaroscuro and expression very unlike that master's. A comparison with the drawing for the Socrates, also in the Uffizi, will immediately show the superiority of the former.

In the earlier work of Perugino on the left wall of the Cambio, Professor Venturi finds another figure by Raphael —the charming Fortezza—the third in the series of personifications of the Virtues. She has the same fresh, youthful head which we see in the right-hand figure of the Vision of a Knight in the National Gallery; and we also find here the same forms as those of the recently discovered fragments of the Coronation of S. Niccolà da Tolentino, fresh from the influence of Timoteo and less Peruginesque than in the Sposalizio. We have no evidence except this head that Raphael was in Perugia in 1500, but we know that at this date he was absent from Urbino.

Another picture which Professor Venturi holds to be unquestionably a work of Raphael, and which still bears the name of Perugino, is the Ecce Homo, in the Galleria Vannucci in Perugia. This picture has always been difficult for the critics to explain, as it has, together with the strong chiaroscuro and developed forms of the beginning of the sixteenth century, the sincere devotion never found in Perugino's later works, and displays a knowledge of anatomy very unlike that exhibited in his other figures. This head is similar to Raphael's Christ on the Cross in the collection of Mr. Ludwig Mond of London.

STANLEY LOTHROP.

Henry R. Poore's new book, "The Conception of Art," is soon to be published by Doubleday, Page & Co.

John Lane Company will issue in the near future a vellum *édition de luxe* of a volume of nearly a hundred miniatures by Charles Turrell, the English artist. The issue will be limited to one hundred copies at $100 a copy. Dr. A. C. Williamson will furnish an introduction.

It seems long ago that Gilchrist, in 1863, described Blake as "pictor ignotus"; today he has become a subject of study for normal college students. Many have written of him as author and artist—Ellis, Fuseli, Wicksteed, Ruskin, Chesterton, De Selincourt, Miss E. L. Cary—and his genius has been appreciated both rhapsodically and sanely. But it remained for Mr. Archibald G. B. Russell to devote a monograph to his engravings in black and white ("The Engravings of William Blake": Houghton Mifflin). Blake was an experimenter in various media; he painted in oil and in fresco, engraved on copper, etched metal for relief printing, did woodcuts of strength and richness, despite—or because of—their rude simplicity, tried lithography, and produced many color prints, which, as the late S. R. Koehler pointed out, were essentially monotypes. But he began with line engraving, learning his craft under Basire, and ended with it in his last great undertaking, the "Book of Job." In this work the somewhat heavy, undistinguished technique acquired under Basire had developed into a freedom of handling which caused Dante Gabriel Rossetti to pronounce the engravings in the "Job" and the "Ballads" of Hayley "the only good medium between etching and formal *line* that I ever met with." In his early work one feels some of the spirit of British book-illustration of the day—as exemplified in the drawings of Stothard, Westall, or Smirke. And later there was a reflection of the Fuselian pose. But these were insular traits which faded somewhat in time. The chief influences, as Mr. Russell points out, were Gothic architecture and Michael Angelo.

Blake understood and appreciated the essential nature and function of the engraved line; he collected prints, and admired and cherished the engravings of Dürer, Lucas van Leyden, Bonasone, and other masters of the art. Mr. Russell records his love of "precision of form," and cites his dictum that "engraving, by losing drawing, has lost all character and expression." This

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segregation of his black-and-white line work, executed with the incisive precision and formality of the burin, from that based on the free use of color in printing, sets in a clear light a significant side of Blake's activity which has possibly been somewhat overlooked through preoccupation with his highly imaginative qualities.

The present carefully compiled and annotated catalogue, with its full information regarding variety of states and the whereabouts of original drawings and studies, will be indispensable to the Blake collector, who will be happy if he has in addition the excellent little catalogue of the Blake exhibition at the Grolier Club in 1905.

Finance

THE TARIFF BILL AND THE FINANCIAL FUTURE.

With the assembling of the Sixty-third Congress last week, and the presentation of the long-awaited tariff-reduction bill, an opportunity was at length provided to see how the financial markets would receive it. Their verdict, as expressed in the movement of prices, ought to have given some clue to the feeling in high financial circles regarding what the effect on trade, industry, and general prosperity is to be. But they have given no very positive intimation. When the bill was published, the Stock Exchange market hardly moved.

Apparently, it was waiting to see how business men would take the proposals for altered duties. From such quarters, the response was somewhat slow; in the end, however, while many protests and warnings were heard, the comment was characterized in an unexpected degree by composure and equanimity. This led to much interested discussion. One somewhat frequent remark was, that a stock market which advanced in last summer's political campaigning days, when Wall Street was betting 4 to 1 on Wilson, and which would not decline on the news of his election—though on both occasions the tariff-reduction policy was taken for granted—had no special reason for declining when the legislation was actually proposed.

The non-committal attitude of the markets presently revived a good deal of interesting reminiscence as to what the Stock Exchange did when other previous tariff revision bills were laid before Congress, and what the financial sequel to debate and vote was on those previous occasions. One such occasion was 1909, when the Payne-Aldrich bill was introduced in March. In April, one of the country's leading financiers predicted financial and industrial recovery, but only when the tariff discussion should be over. It was not over until August, but the trade revival and the boom on the Stock Exchange were vigorously under way by the end of May.

The Dingley bill of 1897 was introduced in March, and finally passed July 24. Trade and the markets had been hesitating, but a very rapid revival was in progress by the end of May, which grew to a boom before the year was over. That, to be sure, was a bill for a higher tariff; but if this fact was the real cause for the recovery, there was the McKinley Tariff bill of 1890, an ultra-protectionist measure, which had an altogether different sequel. That bill was introduced in January and enacted in July. The markets were extremely depressed while it was pending; they advanced sharply in the two months after its enactment, but thereafter lapsed into great disorder, with a Stock Exchange panic in November.

Here are confusing precedents enough. Perhaps, after all, the clue to them rests in something other than tariff debates. For instance, 1909 was a year in which after-panic depression had at length worn off; 1897 was a year in which, by midsummer, an extraordinary agricultural windfall came on a market, with prolonged economy and conservatism behind it; while the characteristic story of 1890 was one of overdone speculation on a basis of tight money. But all such considerations bear most pertinently on yet another tariff-revision year.

A very great part of such misgivings as have existed since last November, over the "tariff session's" probable effect on business, was undoubtedly based on recollections of 1894. That was the last real downward revision of the tariff, and history tells the story of disordered markets, severe trade depression, and a continuous deficit in the public revenue, during and immediately after its enactment. If that was the sequel to the last attempt at general downward revision of the tariff, why not a similar sequel now?

The Wilson bill was in many respects closely similar to the pending Underwood bill; but the circumstances under which it was introduced and passed bore very little resemblance to those which now exist, and this fact almost certainly explains the unexpected composure with which last week's announcements have been received in the business community. The tariff of 1894 was introduced six months after the crisis of the panic of 1893. Its provisions were first read by business men when they had begun to grasp the fact that the country's consuming power was paralyzed and the country itself largely insolvent.

This was not all. The debate proceeded in the face, first, of the demoralization of the Treasury's finances and the threatened collapse of the gold standard; secondly, of the bankruptcy of our largest railway corporations; thirdly, of a revolt of labor which led to the invasion by "Coxey's Army" on the one hand and to the seizure of Chicago's transportation facilities by the American Railway Union on the other; finally, of a disastrous failure of the country's corn crop. None of these spectacular events originated in any sense from the tariff controversy, but they greatly depressed and embittered the business public in its views regarding tariff revision.

Other circumstances aggravated this feeling. The debate on the Wilson bill was angry and prolonged. It began in December, 1893; the House passed the bill at the end of February; the Senate passed its own bill in July, and not until late in August did the two houses agree on the measure. In July a widely signed petition of bankers and merchants was presented to Congress, expressing desperate indifference over the character of the bill, but pleading for speedy enactment, so as to give the season's business plans a chance. For, during all these seven or eight months, American merchants and manufacturers were trying to dispose of the load of surplus stocks with which they had been caught in the panic of 1893, while Europe, where almost equally severe depression prevailed, was unloading its merchandise at a sacrifice on our markets.

Such was the story of 1894. It is a question to consider, just how much resemblance those surrounding circumstances bore to the present well-guarded Treasury, sound currency, prosperous corporations, and well-employed labor, with five years of industrial retrenchment behind us, home stocks of merchandise at low ebb, and European manufacturers at present wholly engaged in keeping abreast of the demands of their own home trade.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Bar Association: Report of the Thirty-fifth Annual Meeting. Baltimore: Lord Baltimore Press.

Bagot, Richard. Darneley Place. Brentano. $1.35 net.

Baker, B. G. The Passing of the Turkish Empire in Europe. Phila.: Lippincott. $3.50 net.

Ballard, Joseph. England in 1815 as Seen by a Young Boston Merchant. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $4 net.

Barthez, E. The Empress Eugénie and Her Circle. Trans. by B. Miall. Brentano.

Bennet, R. A. Out of the Depths. Chicago: McClurg. $1.35 net.

Björnson, B. Plays, translated by E. Björkman. Scribner. $1.50 net.

Braby, M. C. The Love-Seeker. Sturgis & Walton. $1.25 net.

Brady, C. T. The Fetters of Freedom. Dodd, Mead. $1.35 net.

Briggs, Le B. R. College Life: Essays, reprinted. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 35 cents.

Caffin, C. H. Art for Life's Sake. The Prang Co.

Calendar of Letter Books of the City of London. Letter-Book L. (Temp. Edw. IV.-Henry VII). London: Guildhall.

Castle, W. R., jr. Hawaii, Past and Present. Dodd, Mead. $1.25 net.

Chapman, S. J. Elementary Economics. Longmans. 75 cents net.

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Coloma, Luis. The Story of Don John of Austria. Translated by Lady Moreton. Lane. $4.50 net.
Daines, L. L. Comparative Development of the Cystocarps of Antithamnion and Prionitis. Univ. of California Press.
Dell, Floyd. Women as World Builders. Chicago: Forbes. 75 cents.
Dramatic Index for 1912. Edited by F. W. Faxon. Boston: Boston Book Co. $3.50. net.
Eastman, Max. Enjoyment of Poetry. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Estee, L. M. Fungus Galls on Cystoseira and Halidrys. Univ. of California Press.
Everyman Encyclopædia. Vols I and II. Dutton.
Farrand, Max. The Framing of the Constitution of the United States. Frowde. $2 net.
Finck, H. T. Food and Flavor. Century Co. $2 net.
Fisher, L. L. Lantern Stories. Eaton & Mains. 50 cents net.
Forbes-Robertson, Frances. The White Hound. Dodd, Mead. $1.25 net.
Franck, H. A. Zone Policeman 88. Century Co. $2 net.
Fraser, J. F. Panama, and What It Means. Cassell, $1.75 net.
Frost, Robert. A Boy's Will. London: David Nutt.
Gaskell, E. C. Lizzie Leigh, The Grey Woman, and Other Tales. (Vol. VIII, World's Classics series.) Frowde.
George, W. L. Woman and To-morrow. D. Appleton. $1.25 net.
Glasgow, Ellen. Virginia. Doubleday, Page. $1.35 net.
Gracie, Archibald. The Truth About the Titanic. Kennerley. $1.25 net.
Greene, F. N. The Right of the Strongest. Scribner. $1.35 net.
Gregory, Padric. Old World Ballads. London: Nutt.
Hanoum, Zeyneb. A Turkish Woman's European Impressions. Edited, with intro., by Grace Ellison. Phila.: Lippincott. $1.75 net.
Hawks, Ellison. Bees, Shown to the Children. Platt & Peck Co. 90 cents net.
Hewlett, Maurice. Lore of Proserpine. Scribner. $1.35 net.
Hobson, J. A. Gold, Prices, and Wages. Doran. $1.25 net.
Howorth, H. H. Saint Augustine of Canterbury. Dutton, $3.50 net.
Johns, A. R. Socialism. Eaton & Mains. 50 cents net.
Jordan, Humfrey. Patchwork Comedy. Putnam. $1.30 net.
Kellock, Harold. "Mr. Hobby": A Cheerful Romance. Century Co. $1.30 net.
Lippert, F. E., and Holmes, A. When to Send for the Doctor. Phila.: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Loofs, Friedrich. What is the Truth about Jesus Christ? Scribner. $1.25 net.
Lubschez, B. J. Perspective: An Elementary Text Book. Van Nostrand. $1.50 net.
McCullagh, Francis. Italy's War for a Desert. Chicago: Browne & Co.
McKim, R. H. The Proposal to Change the Name of the Protestant Episcopal Church. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Mason, G. S., and Hilliard, J. N. The Bear's Claws. Chicago. McClurg. $1.25 net.
Meredith, Ellis. Heart of My Heart. Desmond FitzGerald. $1 net.
Moore, George. Esther Waters: A Play. Boston: Luce & Co. $1.25 net.
Moore, George. Impressions and Opinions. New edition. Brentano. $1.35 net.
Needham, H. B. Divorcing Lady Nicotine. Chicago: Forbes & Co. 35 cents.
Norris, W. E. The Right Honorable Gentleman. Brentano. $1.35 net.
Onions, Oliver. In Accordance with the Evidence. Doran. $1.25 net.
Orton, C. W. P. The Early History of the House of Savoy (1000-1233). Putnam.
Redfern, J. B., and Savin, J. Bells, Indicators, Telephones, and Burglar Alarms. Van Nostrand. 50 cents net.
Ritchie, J. W. Primer of Physiology. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co.
Rittenberg, Max. The Mind Reader. D. Appleton. $1.30 net.
Roberts, T. G. Two Shall Be Born. Cassell.
Robins, Elizabeth. Way Stations. Dodd, Mead. $1.50 net.
Salisbury, William. The American Emperor: A Novel. Tabard Inn Press. $1.30 net.
Salmon, A. L. The Man and the Woman: Chapters on Human Life. Chicago: Forbes & Co. 75 cents.
Spyri, Johanna. Chel: A Story of the Swiss Mountains. Trans. by H. H. Boll. Eaton & Mains. 75 cents net.
Strahan, James. The Book of Job Interpreted. Scribner.
Stratemeyer, Edward. Dave Porter and the Runaways. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Straus, O. S. The American Spirit. Century Co. $2 net.
Swinnerton, Frank. The Happy Family. Doran. $1.25 net.
Tait, Thomas. How to Train the Speaking Voice. Doran. $1 net.
The Woman with Empty Hands: The Evolution of a Suffragette. Dodd, Mead. 50 cents net.
Walk, C. E., and Lynch, M. The Crimson Cross. Chicago: McClurg. $1 net.
Whibley, Charles. Essays in Biography. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Willcock, John. The Life of Sir Henry Vane the Younger (1613-1662). London: The Saint Catherine Press.
Winter, William. Tyrone Power. Moffat, Yard. $1.25 net.

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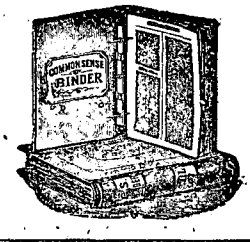

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